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ABSTRACT

This report documents development of Chicago Annenberg elementary schools from 1996-99 (the first 3 years of the Chicago Challenge), noting gains in student academic and non-academic outcomes and examining how the schools that developed got better. The Chicago Annenberg Challenge worked to improve Chicago's public schools through dramatically improved classroom practice and strengthened community relationships. Longitudinal field research and analyses of survey data indicate that Annenberg schools developed in a number of small but significant ways. They became stronger in several areas of school leadership and teacher professional community and some aspects of parent and community support and social trust. Results indicated students perceived that their teachers give them individual attention and are concerned about them. There is also evidence that teachers' use of interactive teaching methods in reading increased. Most of the development is reflected in general patterns of development citywide. Student achievement and social-psychological outcomes in Annenberg schools mirrored student outcomes across the system. Students' academic achievement improved, but student engagement and classroom behavior declined. Tables, research methodology, and survey details are appended. (Contains 80 references.) (SM)

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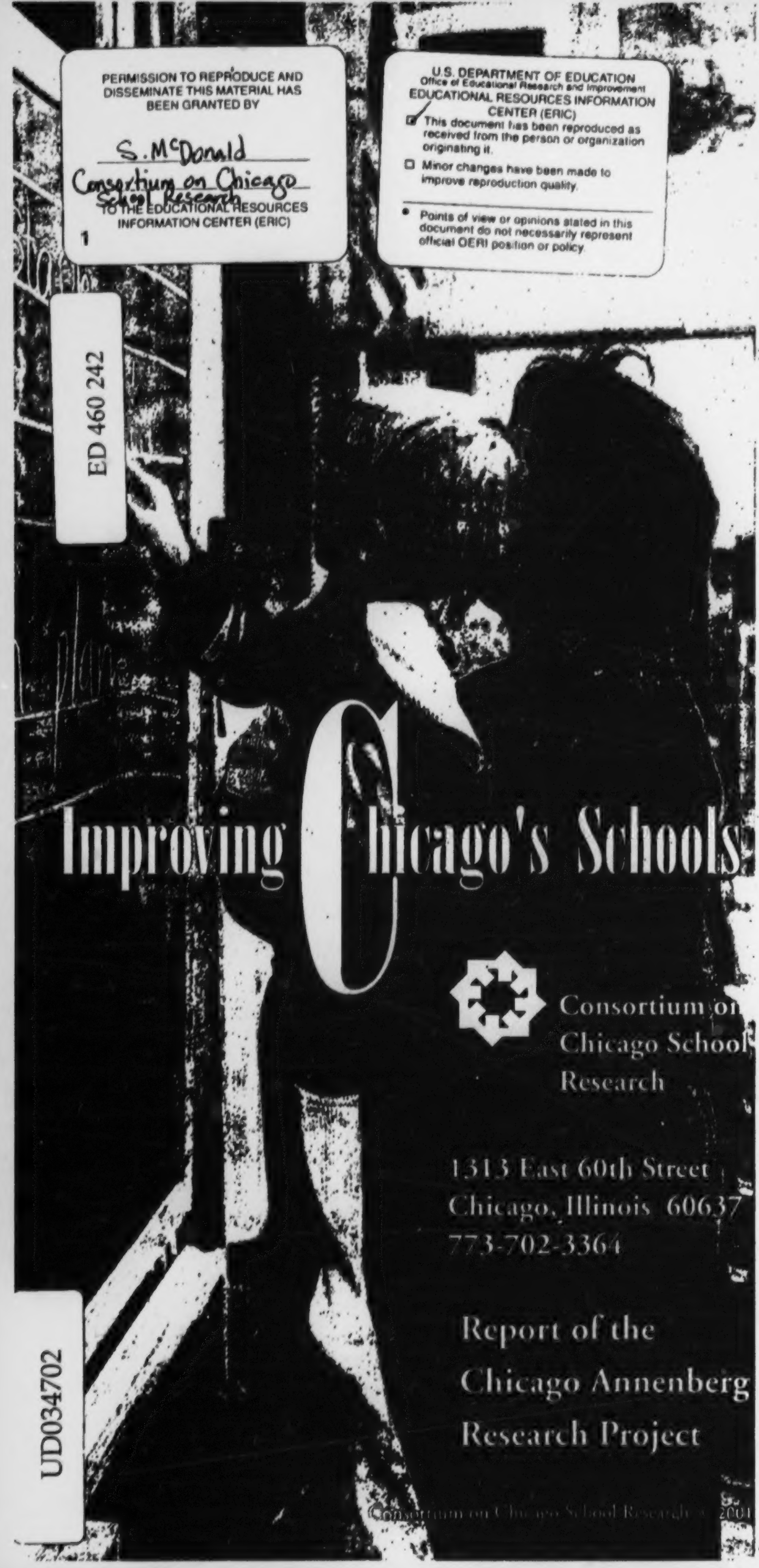

Improving Chicago's Schools

Consortium on
Chicago School
Research

1313 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
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Report of the
Chicago Annenberg
Research Project

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Development of Chicago Annenberg Schools:

1996-1999

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July 2001

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Executive Summary

In this technical report we address three major questions: (1) In what ways did Annenberg schools develop between 1996 and 1999, the first three years of the Chicago Challenge? (2) What gains in student academic and non-academic outcomes have been achieved? (3) How did the schools that developed get better? Our inquiry was framed using the Model of Essential Supports for Student Learning.

Our longitudinal field research and analyses of Consortium survey data indicate that Annenberg schools developed in a number of small but potentially significant ways. They became stronger in several areas of school leadership and teacher professional community and some aspects of parent and community support and social trust. There is evidence that student-teacher personalism and teachers' use of interactive teaching methods in reading also increased. Most of the development in Annenberg schools is reflected in general patterns of development citywide. In only a few areas did development in Annenberg schools exceed these general patterns. Likewise, we found that student achievement and social-psychological outcomes in Annenberg schools mirrored student outcomes across the system—students' academic achievement as measured by the ITBS improved, but student engagement and classroom behavior levels declined.

The Challenge provides a valuable opportunity to better understand the process of school development. Through our field research, we have been able to closely examine schools' efforts to develop. Our observations allow us to discern some initial lessons about how to promote school development. These include: (1) the need for coherent focus on multiple essential supports; (2) the growth of strong distributive leadership; (3) the development of a complementary array of external resources that are aligned with the school's development efforts; and (4) the use of multiple, complementary change strategies that are appropriate to the types of development sought and the contexts in which they are sought.

The findings presented here should be considered provisional. On the basis of evidence through 1999, we cannot draw any definitive conclusions about the overall contributions the Annenberg Challenge will make to school development and student learning in Chicago. We are not surprised by our findings through 1999. It takes a number of years to achieve whole school development and perhaps even longer for that development to translate into substantial, sustained gains in student outcomes. We will have much more to say about development of Chicago Annenberg schools, student outcomes, and how school development is promoted in our final reports. These reports will draw on data through 2001, the last year of the Challenge.

Development of Chicago Annenberg Schools: 1996-1999

Stacy A. Wenzel, Mark A. Smylie, Penny Bender Sebring, Elaine Allensworth, Tania Gutierrez, Sara Hallman, Stuart Luppescu, and Shazia Rafiullah Miller

July 2001

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More than 40 researchers from 10 colleges and universities in the Chicago area helped us collect and analyze data for this report. We are particularly grateful to the following persons who played key roles in the field research strand of the project: Rita Brusca-Vega, Janet Bresden, Robert Casselman, JoAn Chun, Karen DeMoss, Rebecca Greenberg, Rodney Harris, Patty Horsch, Ruanda Garth-McCullough, Joe Kahne, Diane King, Pauline Lipman, Anna Lowe, Audra Millen, Jane Montes, Pam Nesselrodt, Deborah Johnston, James O'Brien, Sarah Phillips, Seri Porter, Therese Quinn, Terry Stirling, Amy Weaver, Kim Williams, Kristin Williams, and David Yasutake.

A Lead Team composed of national scholars and key Chicago Annenberg Research Project staff has been instrumental in shaping the project's work and its various reports, including this one. Past and present team members include Anthony Bryk (Consortium on Chicago School Research and University of Chicago), Valerie Lee (University of Michigan), Fred Newmann (University of Wisconsin-Madison), BetsAnn Smith (Michigan State University), and Julia Smith (Oakland University). We are also grateful for the contributions made by Gudelia Lopez and Tamara Perry who were members of the project at its inception and helped lay the foundation for the work reported here. Sabrina Billings, Verity Elston, Nicolas Leon, Karin Sconzert, and the other project staff members coordinated field research, managed data, and supported the writing of this report. Special thanks go to Loretta Morris, the project's Fieldwork and Data Coordinator.

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I. Introduction

In 1995, the Chicago Annenberg Challenge launched a six-year initiative to improve Chicago's public schools. It set out a broad vision for change, calling for the "enhancement of learning for all students through dramatically improved classroom practice and strengthened community relationships."[1] In order to achieve its objective, the Challenge funded networks of schools and external partners to develop and implement activities to promote local school development. Between 1996 and 1999, more than 200 schools in 45 networks received Annenberg support. Their efforts have focused on many areas of school development, including curriculum and instruction, student learning climate and social services, teacher and leadership development, and parent and community support.

This technical report documents and analyzes development of Chicago Annenberg schools from the 1996-97 school year through the 1998-99 school year, the first three full years of Annenberg support. It suggests some initial lessons about how development can be promoted. This report follows and extends the first technical report of the Chicago Annenberg Research Project, *Getting Started: A First Look at Chicago Annenberg Schools and Networks.*[2] That report examined the Challenge's work during the 1996-97 school year, the first full year it funded networks and local school development efforts.[3]

This report addresses three major questions: (1) In what ways did Annenberg schools develop during the first three years of the Chicago Challenge? (2) What gains in student academic and non-academic outcomes may have been achieved? (3) How did the schools that developed get better? The vast majority—90 percent—of the 200 to 220 schools that received Annenberg support were elementary schools. Therefore, we have focused our attention in this report on the development of Annenberg elementary schools.

Because this report focuses on the first three years of the Challenge and not the full life of its work, it would not be appropriate to draw firm conclusions about its successes or failures to promote school development at this time. The findings and interpretations contained here should be considered provisional. In summer 2002, the Chicago Annenberg Research Project will release its final reports based on five years of data collected from the 1996-97 school year through 2000-01, the last year of the Challenge's work. These final reports will provide a clearer, more definitive picture of the Challenge's accomplishments.

This report is organized into nine sections. We continue our introduction in Section II, taking a closer look at the Chicago Annenberg Challenge, the characteristics of schools and types of development initiatives it supports, and the amount of funding it provides. We also present a brief overview of school reform in Chicago, mapping the context in which the Challenge operates. In Section III, we describe the framework we used to define school development and guide our study. Our research methods are presented in Section IV.

Our findings are contained in the next four sections of the report. Section V presents our findings regarding the development of Annenberg schools. Section VI presents our findings concerning improvement in student academic and non-academic outcomes. In both these sections, we compare the progress made in Annenberg schools to progress made in demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools. Section VII contains stories of development in three Annenberg schools. These stories introduce Section VIII, in which we present four initial lessons from our field research about how school development may be promoted. This section also points to various factors that may support or constrain development. Section IX concludes this report by presenting a summary of findings and a discussion of their implications for ongoing efforts to promote the development of Chicago's public schools.

II. The Chicago Annenberg Challenge: Promoting Local School Development

The Chicago Annenberg Challenge promotes local school development by providing financial and technical resources to schools and their external partners. By design, the scope of the Challenge is broad. It supports a large number of school networks that are formed by their connections to external partners. Together, schools and external partners pursue a wide range of development activities to address local needs.

The Challenge supports local school development in a larger, more complex context of school reform. It operates within a school system that has its own reform agenda and, although it was not designed to compete with the school system, it does provide support for individual schools to pursue their own reform agendas. Ultimately, the Challenge hopes that successful local initiatives will be emulated by schools across the system and help shape system-level reform.[4]

The Challenge's Strategy

The Challenge's efforts to promote local school development build upon Chicago's 1988 decentralization reform. Its purpose is to extend the reform achieved in school governance to other areas of school development.

Since its establishment in January 1995, the Challenge has operated much like a foundation. It distributes its resources through grants and provides some technical assistance to grant recipients. The Challenge established networks of schools linked by an external partner, following a logic that schools that work together with an external partner will find more direction and support for development than if they acted alone. External partners perform a number of different functions. They serve as the fiduciary agents of Annenberg grants. They bring human, intellectual, and occasionally political resources to support local school development. They create and sustain focus and imperative for development, and help schools in their networks support each other. External partners are also encouraged to bring additional financial resources to assist local school development efforts.[5]

The Chicago Challenge does not articulate specific goals for individual school development, nor does it specify any particular activities or processes for schools to follow. Instead, it calls for teachers, parents, and communities to rethink and restructure the basic elements of schooling. Rather than specify programs schools should adopt, the Challenge believes that educators, parents, and community members should identify their own ways to solve local problems and make their schools better.

Initially, the Challenge focused its efforts on three basic problems of school organization that are obstacles to development: (a) the lack of time for effective teaching, student learning, and teacher professional development; (b) the large size of school enrollment and instructional groups that hinders the development of personalized, supportive adult-student relationships; and (c) schools' isolation from parents and communities which reduces their responsiveness to local needs and their accountability to their most immediate constituents. The problem of isolation was extended to include teachers' isolation from one another, which can limit opportunities for teacher learning and development, innovation, and professional accountability.

In making its first network grants, the Challenge required schools to address one or more of these organizational problems. Thereafter, the Challenge encouraged schools and external partners to focus more specifically on teaching and learning, teacher professional development, and whole school change, and not just change among groups of teachers within schools.[6] Schools and external partners who initially received funding were asked to demonstrate a relationship between their Annenberg-supported activity and improvements in student learning. Later, the Challenge accepted grant applications by invitation only and did not renew the funding of several particularly weak networks. It began to concentrate a substantial amount of its remaining resources on a group of what it considered to be its most successful schools. In 2000, 18 schools received additional funding to deepen their development efforts and serve as models and sources of support for development in other Annenberg schools.

Scope and Depth of Support

From its establishment in 1995 through 1999, the Chicago Annenberg Challenge made grants to about 45 networks. Through these networks, the Challenge provided funding to between 200 and 220 schools, or 35 to 40 percent of all schools in the system. Most of this support was provided in two major waves of grant making. Thirty-five networks received their initial funding at the end of 1995. Ten more networks received funding in 1997.

The Chicago Challenge supports a wide range of development activity. About 55 percent of the networks focus primarily on curricular and instructional development. Sixteen percent are working to develop student learning climate and social services for students and families. Another 13 percent are concerned primarily with parent and community support and development. The remaining 16 percent of Annenberg networks have adopted more comprehensive foci, working to achieve development in a number of areas including curriculum and instruction, leadership development, student learning climate, and parent and community support. Within these general categories are a number of specific initiatives including parent education programs, literacy programs, the integration of arts and technology into the curriculum, health/science education, creating small schools, middle school restructuring, principal and teacher leadership development, and strengthening school-community ties.

The Challenge has fostered working relationships among a diverse group of external partners and schools. Of the 45 external partners working with Annenberg schools, about 40 percent are Chicago-area colleges and universities. Another 20 percent are arts and cultural institutions, and 20 percent are education reform and advocacy groups. The remaining 20 percent of the Challenge's external partners are neighborhood organizations, business groups, regional education organizations, teacher organizations, and foundations.

Grants made to schools and networks are relatively modest. Annenberg schools receive, on average, about $39,000 per year. This is about one percent of an average school's annual operating budget, not including other grants that the school might obtain (in which case the Annenberg proportion would be even smaller).[7] On average, external partners receive about $160,000 per year to work with a network of six schools. While external partners spend their Annenberg funds in a number of ways, in practical terms, the money is about enough to provide salary, benefits, and support to two professional staff members.

Characteristics of Chicago Annenberg Schools

Overall, Annenberg schools' demographic characteristics have come to resemble closely those of the system. Schools that first received Annenberg funds differed somewhat from the system in that a slightly larger proportion had predominantly low-income enrollments and a slightly larger proportion had enrollments of more than 85 percent African-American or mixed African-American and Latino students. Moreover, a slightly larger proportion of Annenberg schools had large student enrollments and a greater percentage of low-achieving students.

By the 1998-99 school year, these variations had all but disappeared. As shown in Figure 1, the racial composition, percentage of low-income students, and size of enrollment in Annenberg schools and schools across the system were virtually identical. So, too, was the percentage of students enrolled in bilingual education programs and the percentage of students scoring at or above national norms on the reading and math portions of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS).

Figure 1

Chicago Annenberg Elementary Schools are Comparable to Elementary Schools Citywide, 1998-1999

	Chicago Public Schools	Annenberg Schools
Average student enrollment	**696**	**706**
Racial breakdown of students		
African-American	53%	54%
Latino	33%	34%
White	10%	9%
Asian/Pacific Islander	3%	4%
Native American	<1%	<1%
Students with free or reduced-price lunch	**85%**	**85%**
Students enrolled in bilingual education	**18%**	**18%**
Of the eighth-grade students of 1993		
Graduated from a CPS high school	40%	40%
Dropped out	35%	36%
Left CPS	25%	24%
1999 ITBS—Students at or above national norms—in grades three through eight		
Reading	36%	35%
Math	43%	42%

Context of Chicago School Reform

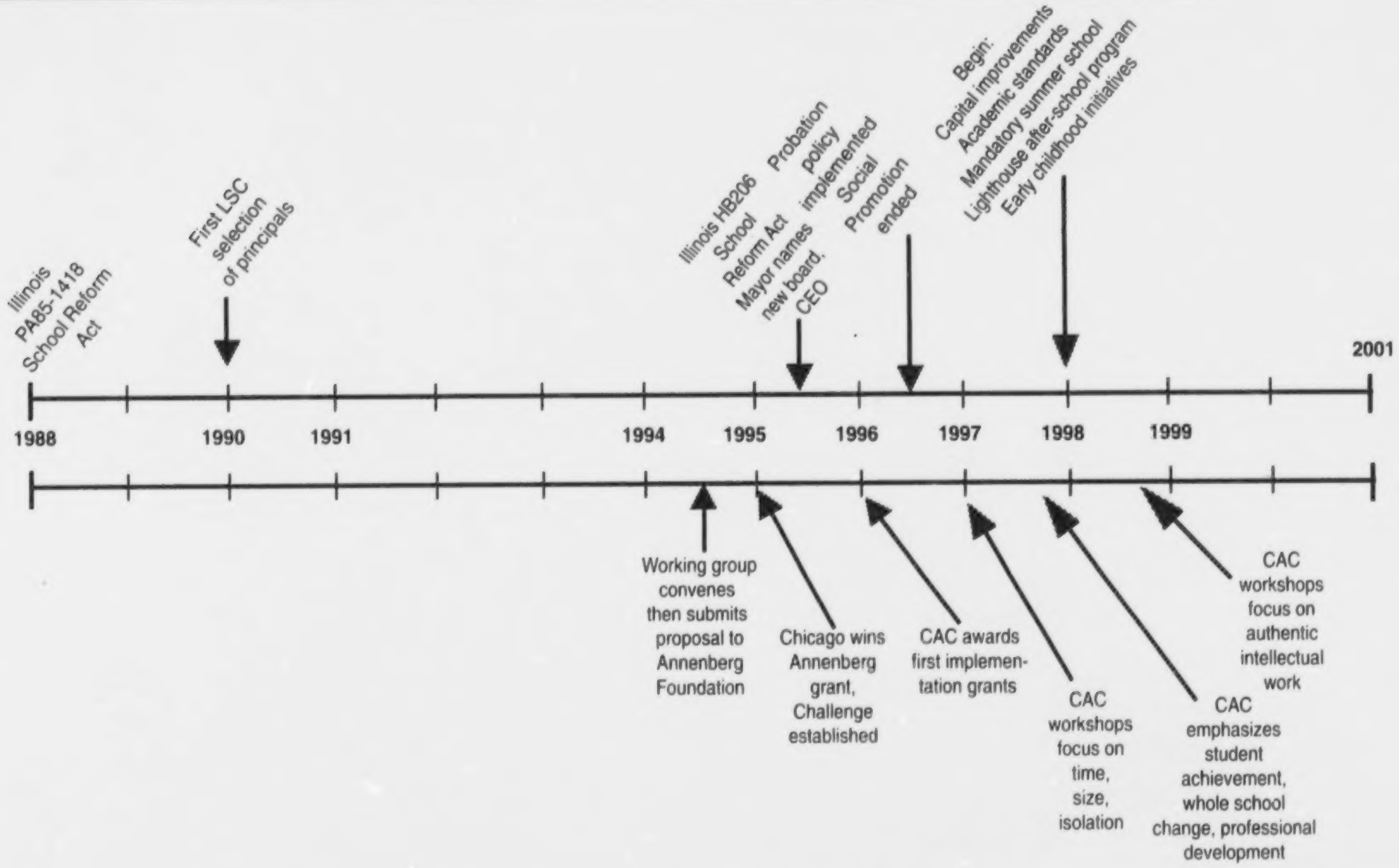
One cannot fully understand the work and accomplishments of the Chicago Challenge without also understanding the broader context in which it operates. Figure 2 juxtaposes the development of the Challenge with that of Chicago's public school reform.[8] This figure is not meant to be comprehensive of all CPS or Challenge initiatives. Rather, it depicts benchmark events that define each.

As shown in Figure 2, the Chicago Challenge was established with a grant from the Annenberg Foundation in January 1995. It was aligned with many of the principles of democratic localism and grassroots action inherent in Chicago's 1988 decentralization reform. Moreover, it sought to extend the work of the 1988 reform from governance to other areas of school development. Six months after the Challenge was established, the Illinois legislature passed the 1995 school reform bill. This bill added a new dimension to school reform—restructuring the central administration through the creation of a corporate-style management team that included a Chief Executive Officer to replace the superintendent and a five-member Reform Board of Trustees appointed by the Mayor. The law established greater accountability within the system by clarifying and extending the authority of the CEO to intervene in non-improving schools.

As the Chicago Challenge began awarding its first network grants, the new central administration introduced two major initiatives to bring centralized, high-stakes accountability into the system. It placed schools with less than 15 percent of students scoring at or above national norms on the ITBS on academic probation and assigned each a probation manager to direct school improvement efforts. Schools on probation that failed to improve their test scores over a period of time would be reconstituted. The administration also developed a new policy to end social promotion. Students in third, sixth, and eighth grade were required to

Figure 2

Context of School Reform in Chicago, 1988-1999


Illinois PA85-1418 School Reform Act
First LSC selection of principals
Illinois HB206 School Reform Act Mayor names new board, CEO
Probation policy implemented
Social Promotion ended
Begin:
Capital improvements
Academic standards
Mandatory summer school
Lighthouse after-school program
Early childhood initiatives
1988
1990
1991
1994
1995
1996
1997
1998
1999
2001
Working group convenes then submits proposal to Annenberg Foundation
Chicago wins Annenberg grant, Challenge established
CAC awards first implementation grants
CAC workshops focus on time, size, isolation
CAC emphasizes student achievement, whole school change, professional development
CAC workshops focus on authentic intellectual work

meet specified cut-off scores on the ITBS in order to advance to the next grade level. If they failed to meet these benchmarks, they had to attend summer school and, if they failed again at the end of the summer, they were retained.

A year later, the administration developed new systemwide goals and standards for student learning. It began to create lesson plans keyed to these standards across grade levels and curriculum-specific examinations for high school graduation. It also began a major capital improvement initiative to build new schools, repair and renovate existing facilities, and alleviate overcrowding in many schools. It established the Lighthouse program to provide after-school academic and recreational opportunities for students. It also began to place more emphasis on early childhood education.

Against this backdrop of centralized initiatives and test-driven accountability, the Challenge was making grants to support local school development initiatives and the work of its external partners. As noted earlier, it first emphasized the organizational issues of time, size, and isolation. Later, it intensified its focus on teaching, learning, and whole school change. In particular, the Challenge began to promote intellectually challenging instruction and teacher professional development. It encouraged teachers to analyze their students' classroom work to stimulate instructional improvement.

There are areas where the school system's initiatives and Annenberg's efforts to promote school development were consistent and mutually supportive. For example, as we describe later in this report, at some of our field research schools the system's capital development efforts for school repair and new school construction have been instrumental in developing learning climates that are more conducive to teaching and learning.

On the other hand, the Challenge has promoted a reform agenda that sometimes collides with specific system policies, creating tensions and dilemmas for principals and teachers at the school and classroom levels. Nowhere are the tensions and dilemmas between the Challenge and the system more sharply pronounced than in the interaction between high-stakes standardized testing and efforts to improve instruction. To date, our research has found that at the school level, high-stakes testing, coupled with the system's probation and student retention policies, can play a crucial, even positive role in creating a press for accountability and a perceived need for change. It can move a school from complacency into action.

At the same time, we have found that in some schools high-stakes testing can push teachers and principals to focus on the quickest means of administrative compliance—test preparation—and abandon, or push aside at least for a while, efforts to achieve more ambitious, long-term instructional improvement.

At this point in our study, we cannot reach any firm conclusions about the interaction between the school system's policies and the Challenge's efforts to promote local school development. We can do little more than identify areas of compatibility and mutual support and areas of tension and dilemma. We present examples of both later in this report.

III. Framing our Study of School Development

The definition of school development and how it is measured is central to any study of efforts to promote it. To say that a school has developed means that it has moved in a positive direction—some aspect of its organization or practices has changed in a specific way to help it achieve a valued goal.

School development has, of course, many valued goals. In this study, however, we are particularly concerned with student academic learning that not only includes, but goes beyond the acquisition of basic knowledge and skills to encompass a deep understanding of subject matter. This type of learning develops cognitive capacities that allow students to work with existing knowledge and create new knowledge to analyze and solve real-world problems, manage their personal affairs, and become economically productive and responsible members of society.[9] In defining and assessing school development then, we must be able to identify those aspects of school organization and practice that, when strengthened, help a school promote such academic learning among its students.

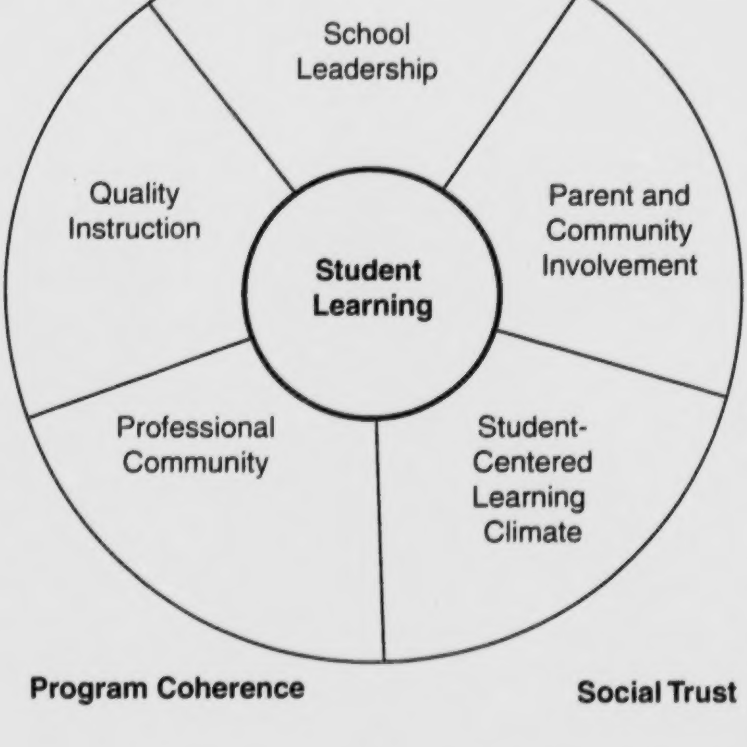
Model of Essential Supports for Student Learning

We use the Model of Essential Supports for Student Learning to frame our study of school development. This framework identifies seven areas of school organization and practice that support the type of ambitious academic learning described above: (1) school leadership; (2) teacher professional community; (3) parent and community support; (4) student-centered learning climate; (5) high quality instruction; (6) social trust; and (7) instructional program coherence (see Figure 3).

The Model of Essential Support emerged from an extensive stakeholder consultation process that was initiated in 1994 by CPS Superintendent Argie Johnson and involved local researchers, principals, teachers, Local School Council members, members of school reform advocacy groups, and central administration staff. This process drew on an earlier review of the literature on school effectiveness by Designs for Change and on previous work by the Consortium that examined concepts of effective school leadership and teacher professional community.[10]

From this consultation process, and with the assistance of the Consortium and other groups, CPS

Model of Essential Supports for Student Learning Figure 3



produced *Children First: Self Analysis Guide*, a reference booklet to help schools assess their needs and plan for improvement. This guide laid out five of the essential supports—school leadership, teacher professional community, parent and community involvement, student-centered learning climate, and quality instruction. Subsequent Consortium research developed these concepts further and identified two additional, overarching supports—program coherence and social trust.[11] These overarching supports were included in a revised version of *Children First*. The Model of Essential Supports has become the template for annual school improvement planning in Chicago public schools and the Consortium uses it to organize the individualized reports it prepares for schools from its biannual systemwide surveys to assist them in their planning.

The Consortium continues to test and develop the Model of Essential Supports by examining whether its elements are more prevalent in schools with improving ITBS scores than in demographically comparable non-improving schools.[12] Using teacher and student survey data to measure the strength of the supports, these analyses show that schools with high levels of the essential supports are more likely to be academically improving than those with low levels. They also show that schools with low levels are more likely to be academically non-improving. Analyses also indicate that schools are more likely to improve academically if they are initially strong in particular supports and maintain or further strengthen them over time.

While these analyses show that each essential support is related to gains in academic achievement, they also indicate that the essential supports do not operate independently of one another. Instead, they function in organizational patterns to promote or reduce the probability of achievement gains. In general, schools that are stronger in a greater number of supports are more likely to be improving than schools that are weaker in more supports. And, as schools move from lower to higher states of development in the essential supports, student achievement is more likely to increase. Therefore, with regard to our definition of development, we may say that schools that move from lower to higher states of development in the essential supports are more likely to promote student achievement.

The Chicago Annenberg Research Project frames its study of school development with the Model of Essential Supports for several reasons. First, it has strong support in empirical literature on academically effective schools and school improvement and is being successfully validated by ongoing analyses at the Consortium. While empirical validation uses gains on the ITBS, the model is theoretically and empirically consistent with promoting more rigorous and authentic intellectual student achievement. For example, studies by Fred Newmann and colleagues for the Chicago Annenberg Research Project have found that high quality instruction, as defined by the model, is associated with both gains on the ITBS and student production of rigorous intellectual work.[13] Second, the model is well established in Chicago public schools. It has guided local school improvement planning for several years. Recently, it was adopted by the Chicago Principals and Administrators Association as a framework for its principal development programs. Third, and perhaps most important for this research project, the model is consistent with the types of development sought by the Chicago Annenberg Challenge.[14]

The seven essential supports can be grouped into three related categories: organizational capacities, organizational practices, and overarching supports. Organizational capacities include school leadership, professional community, and parent and community involvement. Organizational capacities support two key organizational practices most proximal to student learning, student-centered learning climate and quality instruction. Social trust and program coherence are two overarching supports that operate within and across the other two categories. As discussed above, the essential supports operate systemically; change in one will likely promote change in others.

Each of the essential supports is described below.[15] We define high and low states of development and provide brief vignettes from Annenberg schools in our field research sample that illustrate high states of development. Complete sets of indicators of high and low states of development are provided in Appendix A. We use pseudonyms throughout this report to preserve the anonymity of schools that participated in our research.

School Leadership

According to the Model of Essential Supports, strong school leadership is based on a clear mission and vision for the school. It is broadly based and inclusive. It involves the principal, faculty and staff, parents, and the Local School Council.[16] The principal and other administrators communicate well with teachers and involve them in school-level decision making. Teachers work with colleagues and administrators to formulate plans for school development, particularly those related to instructional improvement. The principal takes an active role in instruction and its development by recruiting and retaining effective staff members; encouraging teacher professional development, experimentation, and innovation; and reducing classroom interruption. Strong leadership communicates effectively with the school community. It is strategic and accepts responsibility for fair enforcement of policies, program implementation, and realizing the school's vision. School management is efficient and effective.

On the other hand, consolidated principal power and authoritarian decision making characterize weak school leadership. Weak leadership fails to articulate a clear vision for the school and does little to communicate goals and plans for development. It does not focus on instruction and there is little accountability. School management is chaotic and unpredictable. The principal fails to support teachers in their work, neither helping them in their professional development nor protecting them from interruptions to their work.

Lech Walesa Elementary School. Walesa Elementary School's principal is a strong leader. He provides numerous opportunities for teacher, staff, and parent involvement in key school decisions. He meets weekly with a schoolwide leadership team. He supports grade-level planning meetings and encourages open and honest discussion of issues facing the school. According to one teacher we interviewed, these meetings serve many purposes:

> We have grade-level meetings where we get together to discuss what we are doing. We bring . . . our portfolios. We discuss problems we have. Decisions are mostly made in combination between teachers and administration. We discuss curriculum in our whole staff meetings and we vote on things.

The principal works with faculty to develop strategies to improve student performance on standardized tests. More importantly, he promotes an ambitious set of professional development activities for his staff. The principal expects a lot from his teachers and communicates his expectations to them. A teacher we interviewed observed, "The principal is a taskmaster, but he is not a dictator. He gives us autonomy to be able to do certain types of things." Finally, the principal tries to create an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning. He sees to it that the school is orderly and the hallways are safe and quiet.

Professional Community

Teacher professional community refers to the quality of working relationships among teachers and other staff and the social and normative resources these relationships provide.[17] In strong professional communities, teachers have a clear and common vision for the future and a shared sense of mission and goals. They have developed a common language and share similar beliefs and values. Teachers are deeply committed to high quality instruction; they share responsibility and accountability for their students' success and for achieving their school's goals. Teachers in strong professional communities are highly collaborative. They exchange information about what they've learned from professional experience and research and engage in reflective conversation about their own practices and assumptions. In strong professional communities there is a clear disposition toward ongoing learning and innovation. Members do not always agree on everything, but, because of high levels of trust, disagreement is most often constructive rather than destructive.

In weak professional communities, teachers work in relative isolation from one another. They may be cordial and interact socially, but they rarely share information, discuss problems, or collaborate. Teachers in weak professional communities do not feel accountable to colleagues or to the school as a whole. They do not share a vision for the future, nor do they agree on a set of goals for school development. They lack a common language and are guided by norms of autonomy and privacy. Disagreements are rarely channeled in productive directions. At best they remain unresolved, in a state of détente with teachers agreeing to disagree.

Albert Schweitzer Elementary School. Teachers at Schweitzer Elementary School have a strong professional community. A culture of peer support and collaborative learning permeates the school. There is a clear sense that teachers have a mission to teach their students. One teacher spoke about the ways in which the faculty shares knowledge about developing reading instruction:

> We've adopted the peer-tutoring concept, where teachers who have reading degrees can come in and help beginning teachers or marginal teachers. Because of the new ISAT and IGAP scores, a lot of emphasis had been placed on comprehensive readings. . . . Each grade level meets at least once a week to discuss what we're teaching to make sure that we are all teaching the same strategies. We collaborate often so that gives a sense, it helps to give a feel of where our kids are, so that we can determine what the problem is before it gets to be an exacerbated problem.

Twice a month on Friday afternoons, teachers meet to hear outside speakers or do joint planning. Each week teachers at the same grade level have a block of common planning time to prepare lessons, develop ideas for thematic units, and ensure that their teaching is aligned with CPS academic standards and state learning goals. There is regular discussion of instructional strategies and student assessments. Informal sharing of ideas, curricula, and strategies is frequent. Teachers depend on each other a great deal. They call each other at night for advice. Sharing and mutual support are integral components of this school's professional life.

Parent and Community Support

In schools with strong parent and community support, parents participate in school activities and contribute in significant ways to achieving school goals. Parents support their children's learning at home and are viewed by the school as a crucial resource. There is trust between parents and the school, characterized by mutual respect and confidence in each other's abilities. Schools with strong parent and community support aggressively promote that support.[18] Teachers cultivate ties with parents and the surrounding community. They visit students' homes and attend neighborhood events. Teachers are knowledgeable about community and cultural issues that concern students and their families.

For schools with weak parent and community support, involving parents is not a priority. As a result, parents seldom help the school achieve its goals and may not support learning at home. Trust, respect, and confidence between parents and the school may be weak. The school is largely disconnected from the surrounding community and does not take advantage of the support parents and community organizations might provide.

Norman Borlaug Elementary School. Borlaug Elementary School has developed extensive parent support and involvement. A parent mentoring program anchors a number of other parent initiatives at the school. Graduates of this mentoring program recruit other parents to volunteer in the school and visit the homes of children who are not enrolled in early childhood programs. Borlaug employs program graduates to work as paraprofessionals in the school and has recently hired several parents to assist with its accelerated reader program. A coordinator of the parent mentoring program described it as follows:

> Our goals are always the same: improving student achievement and creating a culture in the school, a community of learners where parents are actively engaged in the school and the learning process and working with the children.

Another coordinator continued:

> What we are doing now is that every other Friday we are planning some kind of workshop for [parents] that before we didn't have. . . . Like, next Friday we are doing Helping with Homework. . . . We had a math workshop. We had a stress management workshop. Things that will help them here in school, and also at home with their kids. And they have been enjoying it a lot. They want more. . . . We asked them in the initial training what kind of workshops they would like, and we go from there.

Parents are clearly valued at the school. The principal encourages teachers to call home often. In addition, the school houses a community center where parent education, GED preparation, and other programs are provided.

Student-Centered Learning Climate

A strong student-centered learning climate is characterized by a number of factors including high expectations and press for student academic achievement and strong social support for learning from teachers, parents, and peers.[19] Students feel their teachers know them personally and care about them as individuals. They count on teachers to notice if they are having academic or personal problems and give extra help. Students feel their peers think school is important. They have a sense of being physically and psychologically safe in their school and classroom. There are few disciplinary problems and those that occur are handled firmly and fairly. Teachers and students treat each other with respect and trust. A strong learning climate is supported by the school's efforts to develop and sustain a schoolwide focus on teaching and learning and optimize instructional time.

Weak learning climates lack a focus on academic learning. Students are not pressed toward high achievement and they receive little social support from teachers, parents, or peers. Students do not necessarily feel that their teachers know them personally or care about them as individuals. They may not feel that they can trust their teachers to be fair or notice when they have problems. In weak learning climates, students may not feel physically or psychologically safe. Instructional time may be frequently interrupted and discipline problems may detract from teaching and student learning.

Elie Wiesel Elementary School. Wiesel Elementary School has a well-maintained and clean campus. There is tight security and teachers take proactive steps to prevent discipline problems. Teachers have high expectations for their students and expect them to exceed grade-level standards. One eighth-grade mathematics teacher, whose opinion of students is fairly typical of the faculty as a whole, explained that she pushes her students toward higher levels of achievement:

> My main concern and priority is getting [students] at grade level in terms of math or beyond, preparing them for high school. So, my goal is to make sure these kids know how to solve . . . these mathematical problems they are going to be addressing in high school. My goal is to be sure that they are achieving at an 8.5, 8.0 minimum, at least for me and my standards, and have them be able to reach those goals. State Board and the Chicago Board of Education have their own standards.[20]

In addition to pressing them to learn, teachers want their students to feel comfortable, supported, and cared for. Said one teacher:

> I don't want [students] to feel intimidated. . . . If they have a question, [they should] feel free to ask a question. If you have a problem, feel free to come and talk to me. I'm their teacher, but I'm also their friend if they need.

Quality Instruction

In the Model of Essential Supports, high quality instruction is defined by three elements.[21] The first is student exposure to subject matter—subject matter is introduced at a steady pace and coordinated within and across grade levels. Teachers may teach basic skills, but they seldom rely on repetition and review. The second is how teachers engage their students in that subject matter. In high quality instruction, teachers make frequent use of intellectually challenging assignments that require students to study a topic in depth, ask students to communicate and explain what they have learned, and draw connections to problems and situations beyond school. The third element, pedagogy, concerns the instructional practices teachers use in the classroom.

The Model of Essential Supports focuses on two pedagogical approaches. The first, didactic teaching methods, refers to the use of whole-class presentation, recitation, and individual student work to transmit and promote the acquisition of specific knowledge. The second, interactive teaching methods, refers to the use of interactive, problem-oriented, differentiated strategies to promote analysis, application, and production of knowledge. High quality instruction is characterized by a balance between these two approaches with a relatively strong emphasis on interactive instruction. Finally, high quality instruction is supported by strong curricular and instructional materials and adequate time for teaching and learning.

Low quality instruction is characterized by slow introduction of subject matter, frequent review and re-teaching, and lack of coordination within and across grade levels. Teachers rarely expose their students to intellectually challenging subject matter and require little more than the acquisition of discrete pieces of knowledge and skills. Students engage subject matter superficially and are not often asked to apply, analyze, or evaluate it. Nor are students required to communicate, explain, or support their work or to connect it to a problem or situation beyond school. Teachers rely primarily on didactic teaching methods and make little use of interactive instruction. Curricular and instructional materials are weak; instructional time is not well preserved, nor is it used to full advantage.

Lech Walesa Elementary School. In addition to strong leadership, Walesa Elementary School also provides an example of some aspects of high quality instruction. Pacing and careful monitoring of instructional time characterize its classrooms. Most of the schoolwide curriculum is carefully planned so that each grade builds on the previous one and all teachers in a given grade teach similar content. Teachers hold regular grade-level meetings to talk about their work and compare their progress.

Interactive and highly challenging teaching and learning can be seen in some Walesa classrooms. In one third-grade class we noted the following example. Students were asked to interview classmates about their favorite color and graph the results of their poll. The teacher demonstrated how to create x- and y-axes. "This is something you have to walk around and find out for yourself," the teacher said as she directed students to interview their classmates about their most and least favorite colors. As students worked on their graphs, the teacher circulated from table to table and encouraged her students to help each other, "Shanika, why did you decide to place this dot above 'blue' where you did? Tell the others at your table how you came to that answer." After about ten minutes, the teacher began a question-and-answer session that helped students interpret and analyze their graphs. Questions included "Which was the most liked color?" "Which was the least?" and "How do you know this?"

School Instructional Program Coherence

School instructional program coherence is one of the model's two overarching supports. It is defined by interrelated programs for students and staff that are guided by a common framework and pursued over a sustained period of time.[22] Strong program coherence is present when this common framework directs all aspects of student learning and governs the working environment. Curriculum, instructional strategies, and student assessments are coordinated among grade-level teachers and across the school, showing a progression of more complex aspects of subject matter and intellectual challenge from one grade to the next. Key student support services such as tutoring, remedial instruction, parent education, and opportunities for parent involvement are aligned with the common framework. Administrators and teachers hold each other accountable for its implementation. The school makes the framework the focus of its professional development efforts and allocates resources to its continued development.

Schools with weak instructional program coherence lack a common framework. Their programs are fragmented and pull faculty and staff in different directions. There is little coordination among teachers within and across grade levels, and student support programs do not necessarily promote the school's instructional efforts. Faculty recruitment, hiring, accountability systems, and professional development are disconnected from any particular instructional focus. Different improvement initiatives may each address discrete problems, but there is little coordination among them to move the whole school forward.

Adolfo Perez Esquivel Elementary School. At Esquivel Elementary School, curriculum and instruction, teacher professional development, student support services, and parent outreach all are organized around the school's comprehensive literacy program. Teachers use periodic assessments aligned with the curriculum to monitor student progress and place students in skill-based reading groups. Professional development socializes new teachers into the curriculum and reinforces it for experienced ones. Regular grade-level and subject-area meetings give teachers opportunities to coordinate their work and address problems.

When offered the opportunity to write a proposal for an Annenberg grant, Esquivel's staff found other schools to partner around this literacy program. Thus, Esquivel was able to obtain new funds to reinforce what it was already doing rather than bring in new, disconnected programs. Moreover, Esquivel's principal worked with the in-house literacy coordinator and the developers of the literacy program to adapt it to the school's particular needs, including helping students prepare for high-stakes standardized testing. Both the opportunity to obtain Annenberg funds and the CPS testing policy could have pulled Esquivel's attention away from its central curricular focus—the literacy program. Instead, the school's leadership was able to manage these various influences to enhance program coherence.

Social Trust

Social trust is the model's second overarching support. It refers to shared confidence in the abilities and integrity of others, mutual respect, and personal regard. Social trust is crucial for school development.[23] In schools with high social trust, teachers feel that their principal respects and supports them, looks out for their welfare, and has confidence in their expertise. They, in turn, respect their principal as an educator. In high-trust schools, teachers and parents respect and support each other and students feel their teachers care about them, listen to their ideas, and keep their promises. Moreover, teachers trust and respect each other, communicate openly, and support colleagues who lead development efforts.

In schools with low social trust, people hold little respect for and have little confidence in others. Teachers do not necessarily believe that their principal trusts and supports them or looks out for their welfare. There is little mutual respect and support among parents and teachers, students and teachers, or among teachers themselves.

Oscar Arias Sanchez Elementary School. There is deep trust and mutual respect among members of the Sanchez Elementary School community. They have confidence in each other's abilities and can count on each other for support. This high level of trust does not mean that there is total harmony among faculty and staff, but because they have built a foundation of trusting relationships, faculty and staff feel comfortable challenging each other and openly expressing disagreements instead of letting them turn into personal attacks. This allows for serious discussion of complex issues that deserve to be considered from multiple points of view. It fosters reflective dialogue about teaching, learning, and school governance.

Considerable trust has developed between teachers and Sanchez's in-house literacy coordinator. Although the coordinator has no authority, teachers volunteer to have her observe their classrooms, critique them on their teaching, and work with them to develop high quality instruction. They turn to the coordinator to share problems and ask for assistance. Such help-seeking behavior is dependent upon trust that the coordinator will be genuinely helpful and not ridicule or penalize teachers for risk taking or possible failure.

Summary

The Model of Essential Supports identifies seven aspects of school organization and practice that are conducive to student learning. These supports include school leadership, teacher professional community, parent and community support, student-centered learning climate, quality instruction, instructional program coherence, and social trust. We have chosen this model to frame and guide our study of development in Chicago Annenberg schools for several reasons. It has theoretical and empirical support. It has become a familiar and established guide for school improvement planning in Chicago public schools. And, it is consistent with the types of development sought by the Challenge.

According to the model, movement from low to high states of development on these essential supports creates conditions in schools that are likely to promote student learning, not only of basic knowledge and skills as measured by the ITBS, but also more ambitious intellectual development. Thus, in our study of Annenberg schools, our primary task is to assess the extent to which these schools move from lower to higher states of development on these supports. We compare such development among Annenberg schools to development in comparable non-Annenberg schools. Moreover, we look closely and compare developing and non-developing Annenberg schools to discern initial lessons about how school development may be promoted.

IV. How We Conducted Our Study

This report draws from three related strands of study supported by the Chicago Annenberg Research Project: (1) longitudinal field research in 14 Annenberg elementary schools, (2) analyses of systemwide survey data, and (3) analyses of standardized test scores. Field research and survey analyses were used to assess development in Annenberg schools and to compare it to development in comparable non-Annenberg schools. We used field research to study how development took place and used analyses of ITBS scores and survey data to assess student outcomes. This section of the report provides an overview of our research methods. More technical details of these methods are provided in Appendix B.

Longitudinal Field Research

The foundation of our study is school-level field research conducted from the 1996-97 school year through the 1998-99 school year. Our original field research sample consisted of 23 elementary and high schools in ten Annenberg networks. Sample selection began with the networks. We selected networks with diverse organizational foci, networks with both newly formed and well-established relationships with schools, and networks with different types of external partners (e.g., universities, community organizations, and cultural institutions). We then selected two or three schools as research sites from each of these networks. One to two schools were chosen because of their promise for working well with their external partners and succeeding in their efforts to develop. An additional school was chosen because of indications that it might struggle to succeed. Our intention was to create a purposive sample of schools that would allow us to understand reasons for more or less successful development. Our site selections were informed by Consortium survey data and assessments from the external partners of the networks we sampled.

We selected our sample of networks and schools in two stages. A first group was selected in the fall of 1996 from the networks and schools that received the first round of Annenberg funding. A second group was selected in the fall of 1997 from those receiving funding in the second round. We collected field data from each of 23 schools in our original sample. In this report, however, we focus on the 14 elementary schools that participated fully in the research from the 1996-97 or 1997-98 school years through 1999. Six of the 14 elementary schools were in networks that first received Annenberg funding in 1996. Eight were in networks that received their first grant in 1997. Although we did not intend to select a group of schools that was demographically representative of all Annenberg schools, the 14 schools that make up our field research sample are quite typical of schools across Annenberg and the system as a whole (see Figure 4).

A lead researcher and a research assistant collected different types of data from each field research school in the 1996-97 or 1997-98 school year (depending on the school's entry into the Annenberg Challenge) and then again in 1998-99. These data include:

- Classroom observations of six language arts teachers and six math teachers, two each from the third, sixth, and eighth grades
- Classroom observations of two or three additional teachers involved with specific Annenberg initiatives
- Samples of classroom assignments and student work from the observed classrooms
- Interviews with each observed teacher, the principal, the school's Annenberg external partner and coordinator, the LSC chair, the LSC teacher representative, a member of the school's Professional Personnel Advisory Committee, and the teacher union representative
- Observations of meetings and events associated with Annenberg network activities and other major school development initiatives

Figure 4

Field Research Schools are Comparable to All Annenberg Elementary Schools and to Elementary Schools Citywide
1998-1999

	Chicago Public Schools	Annenberg Schools	Field Research Schools
Average student enrollmentl	**696**	**706**	**Range 600-1,600**
Racial breakdown of students			
African-American	53%	54%	50%
Latino	33%	34%	41%
White	10%	9%	7%
Asian/Pacific Islander	3%	4%	<1%
Native American	<1%	<1%	
Students with free or reduced-price lunch	**85%**	**85%**	**89%**
Students enrolled in bilingual education	**18%**	**18%**	**21%**
Of the eighth-grade students of 1993			
Graduated from a CPS high school	40%	40%	39%
Dropped out	35%	36%	37%
Left CPS	25%	24%	22%
1999 ITBS—students at or above national norms—in grades three through eight			
Reading	36%	35%	32%
Math	43%	42%	37%

- Documents and other materials pertaining to school development and to Annenberg and other school development activity

Field researchers were responsible for documenting the development of each essential support, as well as the activities in which schools engaged to get better. Interviews were audio taped and transcribed. Observation notes, documents, and other materials were organized and archived. Researchers wrote structured case reports of their schools' development at two set points in time and vignettes that described the schools' efforts to get better. Cases and vignettes of the 14 schools were independently read and coded for areas of development by three qualitative analysts. Discrepancies among the analysts in coding were discussed and reconciled through consensus. In this manner, schools were classified as "developing" or "non-developing" and specific areas of development were categorized. These designations, themes, and patterns concerning the promotion of school development were shared with field researchers to confirm their validity. Specific examples of school development activity were identified to illustrate themes and patterns in the broader data. These examples were also confirmed with field researchers.

Analyses of Survey Data

This study used data from systemwide teacher, student, and principal surveys administered by the Consortium on Chicago School Research to map development in the essential supports across Annenberg schools and to compare it to development that would be found in demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools. We used student surveys to assess student social and psychological outcomes. The Consortium administered these surveys in the spring of 1994, 1997, and 1999. We used the 1994 and 1997 surveys for baseline data and the 1999 surveys to determine change from these initial points. Rasch measures of survey items were developed as indicators of various aspects of the essential supports.

Appendices C and E contain full descriptions of these measures.

Hierarchical linear models were used to assess changes in the measures over time and differences in changes between Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools. These analyses controlled for a number of school demographic characteristics including school racial and ethnic composition, school level of achievement, school size, and percent of low-income students in the school. Appendix B contains more detailed information about how we performed these analyses.

Analyses of ITBS Scores

The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS) is the primary indicator of student academic learning used in this report. We identified systemwide trends in reading and math scores on the ITBS and compared them to the scores of students in Annenberg schools and to the scores of students in demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools.

We report ITBS trends contained in the Consortium's annual review of test score trends as measured by grade equivalents. Grade equivalents align students' raw scores with a standard national average score at a particular grade. This standard score is the equivalent of the grade level plus eight months at that grade. Therefore, a grade equivalent of 4.8 is equal to the test score national average for fourth graders. If fourth graders in Chicago averaged a 3.8 grade equivalent in 1992, they scored one year below what students achieved nationally.

The Consortium's annual review of test score trends is calculated in ways that adjust for several important factors. For example, the review reports trends by age group rather than grade level to adjust for the effects of the CPS retention policy. Although the school system occasionally has adjusted its rules concerning which students' scores are included in school averages, the Consortium proceeds on the basis of rules in place in 1997 and 1998. Accordingly, some students excluded by the system in 1999 are added back into the Consortium's analysis and some students included in 1995 and 1996 are taken out.[24]

In comparing the performance of Annenberg and non-Annenberg students on the ITBS, we used the Consortium's productivity index rather than grade equivalents. This index considers the learning gains of students who are enrolled in a school at least one full academic year and takes into account their previous achievement. It measures the extent to which schools extend, sustain, or fail to sustain learning achieved at previous grade levels. Additional detail can be found in Appendix B.

Connecting Mixed Method Evidence

Our research questions focus attention at both macro and micro levels of school development. At the macro level, we seek to understand broad-based patterns of development across Annenberg schools and whether those patterns are similar to or different from patterns of non-Annenberg schools and schools systemwide. At the micro level, we seek to understand what development looks like and how it manifests itself in concrete terms. Our need to study development at both levels calls for the use of research methods that have different and compatible strengths.

We use field research to observe the development of the essential supports in individual schools. We seek to understand the deeper lessons of school development processes from qualitative analysis of interviews and observations and school-specific documents. To this micro-level work, we add a scaffold of survey research and analysis of test score trends to understand the patterns of development and their prevalence across all Annenberg schools and the system as a whole.

V. Development of Chicago Annenberg Schools

Schools are complex organizations that possess both strengths and weaknesses. A school may have a strong and active parent group, but its principal may lack the leadership ability to involve the group effectively in the life of the school. This same school may increase the number of professional development opportunities available to teachers, but at the same time, witness an erosion in the overall quality of the professional development and a decline in the number of teachers who choose to participate. A school may make great strides in developing a strong, caring, personalized student learning climate, but make little progress in raising expectations for student achievement or improving the quality of classroom instruction. A school may have an excellent relationship with its external partner, but compromise this partner's work by adopting contradictory and competing change initiatives.

Taking into account such complexities, it is difficult to create a general measure of school development or make general statements about the overall development of a school or group of schools. We must document different aspects of school development, looking at the development of each essential support and the specific elements that define it. For example, rather than considering the development of professional community as whole, we look at the development of its elements—teacher collaboration, collective responsibility for student success, teacher innovation, teacher commitment, and so on.

In this section we describe development in Chicago Annenberg schools with respect to the elements that make up each essential support. We begin our discussion with examples of the types of development that are occurring in our field research schools. We follow these examples with a more detailed vignette from one school. These vignettes were chosen to illustrate the best cases of development in our sample. Then, we present findings from survey analyses that assess the prevalence of development across Annenberg schools. These analyses use school-level aggregates of survey data to indicate whether the levels of different elements of the essential supports at Annenberg schools changed between spring 1997 and spring 1999, and whether these changes are similar to or different from those at demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools.[25] Appendix D contains the numerical results of the statistical analyses that stand behind the findings we report in this section. Finally, we used teacher- and student-level data to describe the extent of change in the essential supports across Annenberg schools.

Our survey data provide two baseline points, spring 1994 and spring 1997, from which to assess development in Annenberg schools. It is important to note that in the spring of 1994 there were no statistically significant differences between Annenberg and demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools on any available measure of the essential supports. Because the focus of this report is on development between the 1996-97 and the 1998-99 school years, we chose spring 1997 as our baseline for our statistical analyses of change in the levels of essential supports at Annenberg schools and to compare their development to non-Annenberg schools. But, because we also wanted to show long-term change across Annenberg schools, and because the directions of change between spring 1994 and spring 1997 are consistent with directions of change between spring 1997 and spring 1999, we chose spring 1994 as the baseline for our descriptive statistical representations of change across Annenberg schools.

In the pages that follow, statistically significant differences are noted if there is less than a 5 percent likelihood that the difference is associated with chance ($p < 0.05$). Although the specific differences we report may seem small, it is important to note that if they are of statistical significance, they represent real changes and are not likely to have occurred as a result of chance or by random factors.

School Leadership

Examples from the Field

We found many positive changes in school leadership in our field research schools. We observed increases in teacher participation in decision making and a greater focus on instructional development in participative decision making. Groups of teachers became more involved in school- and grade-level decisions and program development. We saw a growing number of principals reach out to involve others in school leadership in general, especially working with teachers to elaborate goals for instruction and increase students' higher-order learning.

Adolfo Perez Esquivel Elementary School

School leadership at Esquivel Elementary School has been developing steadily for several years going back to its participation in the federally funded Creating a New Approach to Learning (CANAL) program in the early 1990s. CANAL encouraged school staff to promote whole school change through shared decision making. When the program ended, the principal, faculty, and staff adopted an instructional program that matched their vision for the school and worked well with their style of shared leadership.

Esquivel's principal explained that CANAL's emphasis on shared decision making stemmed from a recognition of the importance of classroom teachers' involvement in shaping the instructional program. He believed strongly in the value of others' ideas and the benefits of collaboration. Faculty and staff shared this view. All of the teachers we interviewed spoke positively about the administration and the numerous opportunities for involvement in strategic planning and decision making. A teacher representative on Esquivel's LSC described how this approach had been incorporated into LSC meetings. She pointed to increased parent involvement in the LSC and parents' growing comfort in asking questions and raising issues.

Esquivel's commitment to collaboration has led to the establishment of a clearly articulated set of goals that direct development activity. These goals are reflected in the School Improvement Plan (SIP). They bring coherence to the school's development efforts and allow the principal and school leaders to protect the school from initiatives that do not align with Esquivel's philosophy.

Development Across Annenberg Schools

According to survey data, the overall strength of school leadership increased in Annenberg schools by a small but statistically significant amount between 1997 and 1999. Consistent with findings from field research sites, there was growth in the inclusiveness of school leadership, principal instructional leadership, teacher joint problem solving, and teacher influence on school decision making. Demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools developed in similar ways. On one measure of school leadership, teacher influence on school decision making, Annenberg schools developed at a greater rate. In 1999, Annenberg schools rated higher in their mean level of teacher influence than non-Annenberg schools.

Figures 5 through 8 show the development of school leadership across Annenberg schools between 1994 and 1999. The most noticeable change occurred in teacher influence (see Figure 8). In 1994, 17 percent of teachers in Annenberg schools reported extensive influence over decisions of importance to their schools, particularly in adopting instructional materials and setting standards for student behavior. By 1999, 24 percent of teachers regarded their influence in school decision making to be extensive.

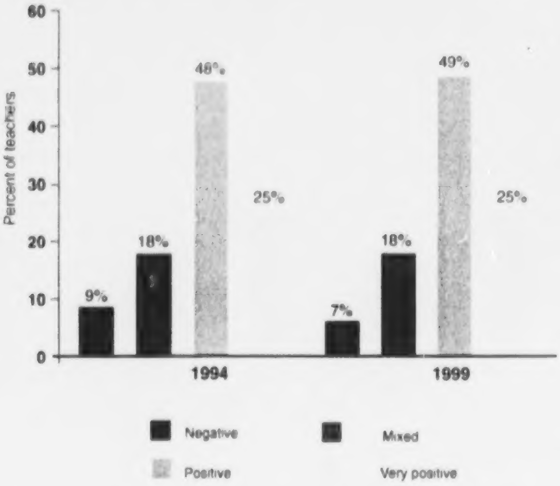
Professional Community

Examples from the Field

More of our field research schools worked to develop teacher professional community than any other essential support, and more succeeded in this area than in any other. In several schools we found that groups of teachers began to work more closely together to analyze their practice and address issues of student learning. Growing numbers of teachers learned to talk effectively with one another about improving instruction and began to develop a shared language to do so.

Figure 5

Principal Inclusive Leadership in Annenberg Schools



This measure is designed to assess teachers' perceptions of their principal as an instructional leader. Teachers were asked about their principal's leadership with respect to standards for teacher and learning, communicating a clear vision for the school, and tracking academic progress. In schools with a high score, teachers view their principal as very involved in classroom instruction, thereby able to create and sustain meaningful school improvement. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 6

Principal Instructional Leadership in Annenberg Schools

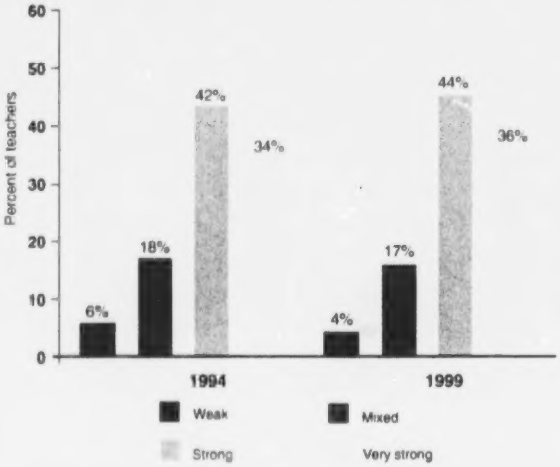


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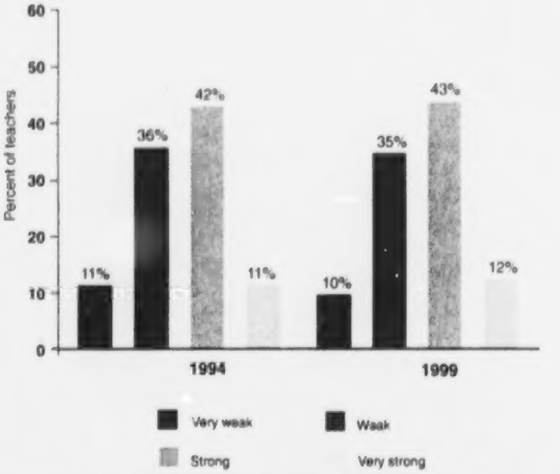
Figure 7

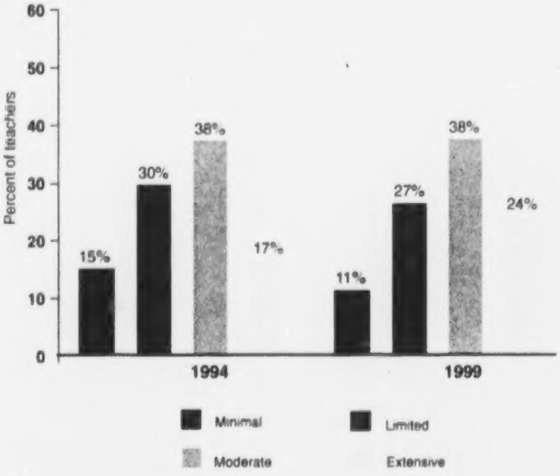
Joint Problem Solving in Annenberg Schools



This measure examines whether teachers sustain a public dialogue to solve problems. Teachers reported whether they used faculty meetings to discuss personal views and problem solving, and whether there is a good process for making decisions. Schools with a high score have good communication among teachers who work together to solve problems. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 8

Teacher Influence on School Level Decision Making in Annenberg Schools



This measure indicates the extent of teachers' involvement in school decision making. Teachers registered how much influence they have over such matters as selecting instructional materials, setting school policy, planning in-service programs, spending discretionary funds, and hiring professional staff. A high score indicates influence over both classroom matters and major schoolwide decisions, such as budgets and hiring new staff, implying a broad sense of "ownership" for school decisions. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

As a result of these interactions, teachers' exposure to different teaching practices increased.

Nelson Mandela Elementary School

When we first visited Mandela Elementary School in fall 1997, we found that although teachers were quite cordial to one another, very few spent time working together. The principal called whole school faculty meetings several times a year, but teachers did not meet regularly to discuss their work. Beginning that year, however, a small group of teachers began to work with its Annenberg external partner to increase teacher collaboration.

By the next school year, there were marked differences in the working relationships among teachers who participated in the Annenberg initiative. For example, the Annenberg teachers consistently took advantage of regularly scheduled common planning time. Teachers in the Annenberg group more readily identified themselves as a team. They frequently used their time together to share what they learned from professional development, including giving short presentations about a recent conference or discussing specific pedagogical issues such as literature circles, thematic units, or how to implement advisory periods.

While Annenberg teachers worked to develop a tighter-knit professional community, non-Annenberg teachers began to emulate their colleagues and interact in more collaborative and reflective ways. Several teachers who did not work with the Annenberg partner expressed an interest in working together more like a school-within-a-school. The principal also said that he would like departments to function more like teams. As one school administrator observed, "Many of the ideas the Annenberg teachers have adopted, the whole school is adopting them."

Development Across Annenberg Schools

Using survey data, we examined change in different aspects of teacher professional community including teacher collaboration, collective responsibility for student success, the occurrence of reflective dialogue about teaching, teachers' focus on student learning, orientation toward innovation, and commitment to student success. Consistent with evidence from our field research, survey data show statistically significant development in some areas of professional community in Annenberg schools between 1997 and 1999, most notably in focus on student learning, orientation toward innovation, and reflective dialogue. We found similar increases among comparable non-Annenberg schools in focus on student learning and orientation toward innovation; however, increases in reflective dialogue in Annenberg schools surpassed those in non-Annenberg schools. In Annenberg schools then, there was a higher level of informal talk among teachers about instruction, sharing and discussing student work, and discussing assumptions about student learning and behavior than in non-Annenberg schools.

Figures 9, 10, and 11 show development in teacher professional community across Annenberg schools. In 1999, greater proportions of teachers reported that their schools were focused or very focused on student learning than in 1994. This means that larger proportions reported that their schools made decisions based on what was best for student learning. Similarly, larger proportions of teachers in Annenberg schools reported stronger orientation toward innovation in 1999 than in 1994. In 1999, 46 percent of teachers in Annenberg schools reported that most or nearly all teachers were continually learning; encouraged to grow, try new ideas and take risks; and really tried to strengthen their teaching. Finally, greater proportions of teachers reported regular or frequent occurrence of reflective dialogue than before.

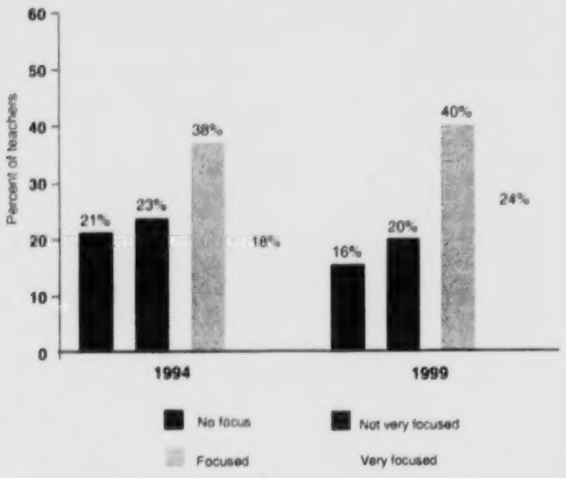
Parent and Community Support

Examples from the Field

Compared to the number of field research schools with development in school leadership and professional community, fewer field research schools strengthened parent and community support. However, several schools we studied established new

Figure 9

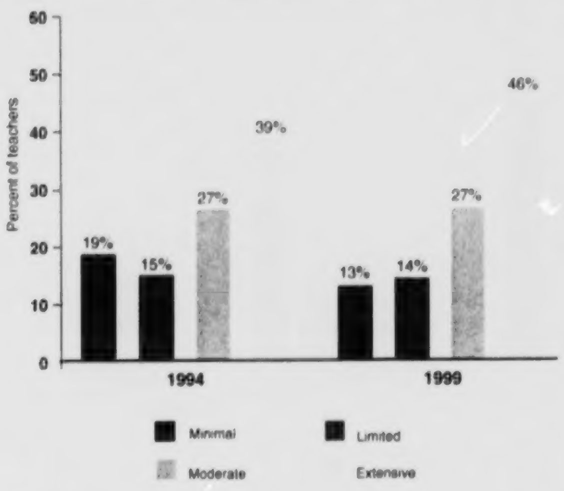
Focus on Student Learning in Annenberg Schools



This measure gauges the extent to which teachers feel their school's goals and actions are focused on improving student learning. Teachers reported whether the school has well-defined learning expectations for all students, sets high standards for academic performance, and always focuses on what is best for student learning. Schools that share a consensus about their goals and actions for improving student learning score high on this measure. Advancing education for all students is the central concern here. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 10

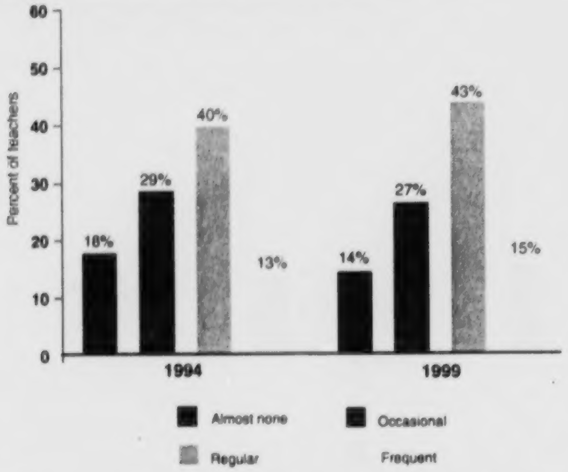
Orientation Toward Innovation in Annenberg Schools



This measure indicates whether teachers are continually learning and seeking new ideas, have a "can do" attitude, and are encouraged to change. A high score means a strong orientation to improve among the faculty, indicating their willingness to try new things for the sake of their students and to be part of an active learning organization themselves. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 11

Reflective Dialogue in Annenberg Schools



This measure reveals how much teachers talk with one another about instruction and student learning. Teachers reported how often they discuss curriculum and instruction as well as school goals, and how best to help students learn and how to manage their behavior. A high score indicates that teachers are engaged in frequent conversations with each other about instruction and student learning, helping to build common beliefs about the conditions of good schooling. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

parent education programs, sought assistance from community organizations, and helped their students gain greater access to community services.

Rigoberta Menchu Elementary School

With two parent coordinators on staff, an estimated 30 parent volunteers a day, and eight active parent groups, Menchu Elementary School has devoted substantial attention to cultivating parent and community support. Parents can attend workshops on a variety of topics from how to help their children learn to how to prepare income tax forms. Several parent groups work to encourage students and parents to read at home.

Menchu increased its efforts to work with parents between 1997 and 1999. Its staff took strategic action to promote parent involvement and support. According to an LSC representative, the school helped parents gather materials to create a parent lending library containing videotapes and books on parent concerns, gangs, drugs, puberty, and how to support children's academic growth. In 1997, a parent and community coordinator worked with the school's Annenberg external partner to create a committee to coordinate the eight parent groups. This committee, the Parent Leadership Circle, reduced confusion and overlap in work among these groups. As a result, the parent groups became better organized and better able to work on their own, and one of the coordinators has been able to find time to work with parents on increasing student attendance.

Menchu has made substantial effort to help its students take greater advantage of community resources. The school's staff established relationships with community health organizations so that students might receive preventative health care services like immunizations and physical examinations more readily.

Development Across Annenberg Schools

We used teacher and student survey data to examine development of several aspects of parent and community support—parent support at home for student learning, parent involvement at school, teacher outreach to parents, teacher knowledge of student culture, teacher use of community resources, teacher ties to the community, and community support for student learning.

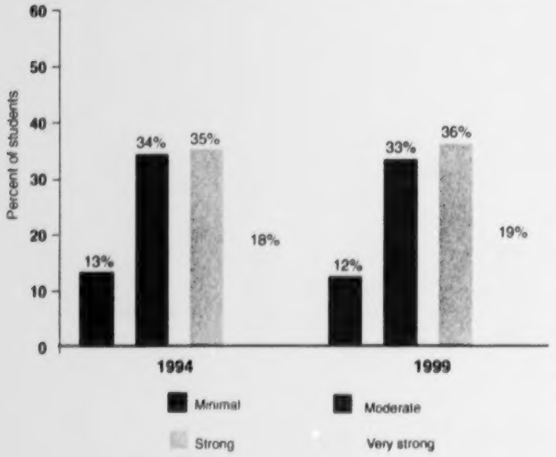
In 1999 more so than in 1997, students in Annenberg schools reported that their parents encouraged them to work hard, do their homework, and take responsibility for their own learning. In addition, in Annenberg schools, students' reports of community support for learning were higher in 1999 than in 1997. In 1999, students felt more strongly that people in their communities care about what happens there, that there are adults in the community who can be trusted and looked up to as role models, and that adults in the community know the local young people and make sure that they are safe. These increases in parent and community support were small but statistically significant. They occurred among Annenberg schools as well as the system as a whole. We found no statistically significant changes in most other indicators of parent and community support, including teacher ties to the school's community, teacher outreach to parents, and teacher knowledge of student culture.

Annenberg schools reached a higher level of development than non-Annenberg schools on one measure of parent and community support—teacher use of community resources. Between 1997 and 1999, teachers in Annenberg schools increased their incorporation of people and events from the community in their teaching. They more frequently told students about community organizations and agencies that could help them with their problems. They more frequently collected materials from community organizations to use in class and consulted with community members to better understand their students. Finally, teachers in Annenberg schools more frequently took students on field trips and brought in guest speakers from their schools' communities.[26]

Figures 12 through 14 illustrate Annenberg schools' development in parent and community support and teachers' use of community resources. Figure 12 shows a slight increase in proportions of students in Annenberg schools reporting strong or very strong

Figure 12

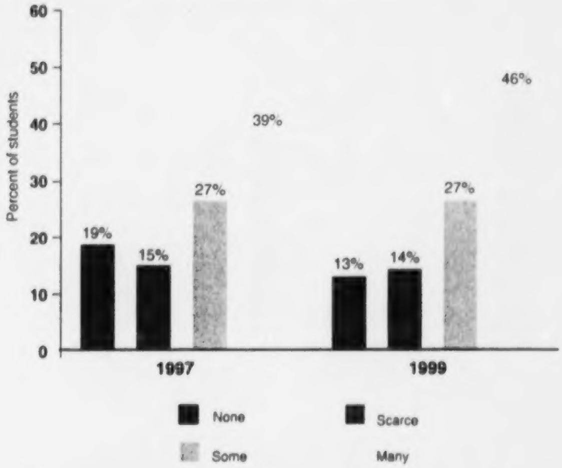
Parent Support for Student Learning in Annenberg Schools



This measure gauges student views of their parents' support for their school work. Students were asked about how often their parents (or other adults) encourage them to work hard, do their homework, and take responsibility. A high score means strong parental support. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 13

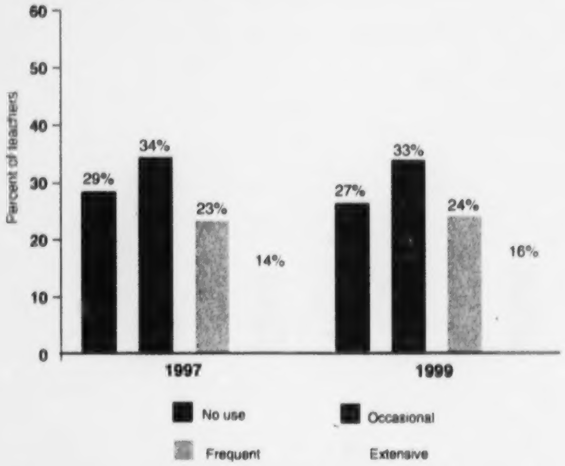
Community Resources to Support Student Learning in Annenberg Schools



This measure assesses whether students trust and rely on neighbors and community members and whether they know and care about them and each other. Students were asked, for example, if adults make sure that children in the neighborhood are safe, if they know who the local children are, and if people in the neighborhood can be trusted. In schools with a high score, many students have community resources that support them. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 14

Teacher Use of Community Resources in Annenberg Schools



This measure assesses the extent to which teachers use the local community as a resource in their teaching and in their efforts to understand their students better. Teachers reported how often they brought in guest speakers from the community, consulted with community members to understand their students better, and used examples from the community in their teaching. A high score means greater use of these community resources and more effort on the part of teachers to understand their students' surroundings. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

parent support for learning. Figure 13 shows a larger shift toward stronger community support. Finally, Figure 14 shows a small shift toward more frequent and extensive use by teachers of community resources in their teaching.

Student-Centered Learning Climate

Examples from the Field

Several of our field research sites have made substantial efforts to develop their physical environment in order to foster a more student-centered learning climate. Others have increased school safety and reduced behavioral problems. Still, in others we have observed the development of more personalized relationships between students and adults and a greater recognition and celebration of student work and academic success.

Oscar Arias Sanchez Elementary School

Sanchez Elementary School has made substantial strides in developing a stronger, more supportive student learning climate. Repairs and renovations to the building have been dramatic and have helped create an environment that is more conducive to teaching and learning.

When we first visited in 1997, Sanchez was suffering from severe overcrowding. Classes were forced to meet in the cafeteria, gymnasium, and closets. Every available space was used. Science, art, and other special classes had to move from room to room throughout the day. The school was very disorganized, noisy, and the daily schedule often changed at the last minute. The opening of a new addition to the school in 1999 created much needed classroom space. Teachers received permanent classrooms and the noise level was greatly reduced. A new custodial staff enhanced the appearance of the building. Walls were freshly painted and students' work decorated halls and classrooms.

With renewed order in the hallways, teachers and the principal turned their attention to protecting instructional time from interruptions. Field researchers noted that since the new building addition was completed, both teachers and students seemed more excited about and invested in the school and were able to focus more directly on teaching and learning. Without the distractions and disruptions of the past, teachers felt that they could expect more from their students academically, and were better able to give personalized attention to help them succeed.

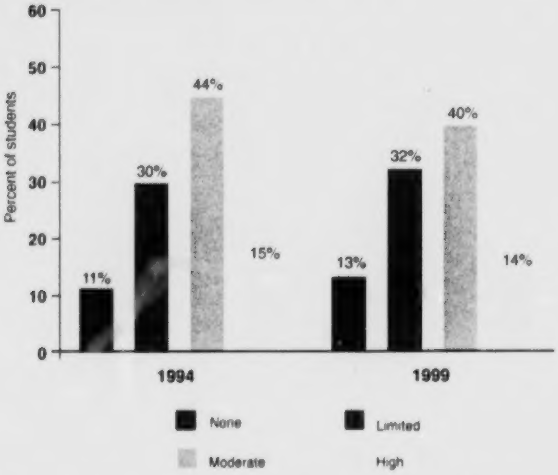
Development Across Annenberg Schools

Student survey data reveal a complicated picture of change in student learning climate between 1997 and 1999. Climate grew stronger in some ways, remained fairly constant in others, and weakened in yet others. Press toward academic achievement and peer support for academic work declined across the city. At the same time, levels of classroom personalism rose systemwide. Each of these changes was statistically significant. There was no statistically significant change in students' sense of safety in school during this period. And, there were no significant differences between Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools in changes in these aspects of student learning climate.

Figures 15 through 17 illustrate these changes in Annenberg schools. Figure 15 shows a slight decline in levels of academic press experienced by students. Similarly, Figure 16 shows a decline in the percentage of students who report moderate and strong levels of peer support for academic work and an increase in the percentage of students who report limited and minimal peer support. Figure 17 shows a substantial increase in classroom personalism in Annenberg schools.

Figure 15

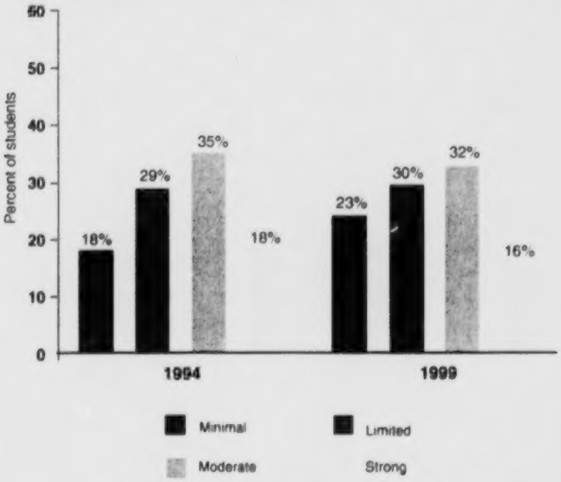
Press Toward Academic Achievement in Annenberg Schools



This measure gauges whether students feel their teachers challenge them to reach high levels of academic performance. This is a key element in a school climate focused on student learning. Students were asked if their teachers press them to do well in school, expect them to complete their homework, and to work hard. The scale also includes questions about teachers praising students' work and willingness to give extra help. In schools that score high, most teachers press all students toward academic achievement. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 16

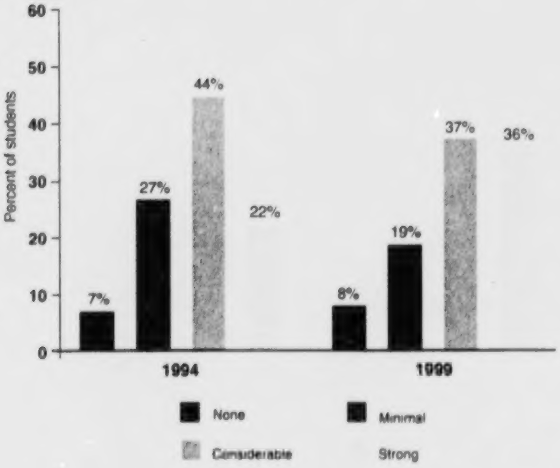
Peer Support for Academic Work in Annenberg Schools



This measure reveals whether prevailing norms among students support academic work. Students reported whether their friends try hard to get good grades, do their homework regularly, pay attention in class, and follow school rules. In schools with high scores, students experience support from peers for adademic work. As a result, student learning is more likely. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 17

Classroom Personalism in Annenberg Schools



This measure gauges whether students perceive that their classroom teachers give them individual attention and show personal concern for them. Students were asked if their teachers know and care about them, notice if they are having trouble in class, and are willing to help with academic and personal problems. A high score here means students experience strong personal support from school staff. Academic achievement is more likely in classrooms that combine personalism with a strong press toward academic work. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Quality Instruction

Examples from the Field

We found very few examples of schoolwide development of instruction in our field research schools. However, we did find a number of examples of individual teachers or groups of teachers who were making greater use of interactive teaching methods and increasing the intellectual challenge of classroom assignments.[27] At the same time, the most prevalent change in classroom instruction observed in our field research schools would not be considered development by our definition of high quality instruction. In a third of our field research schools there was a substantial increase in the amount of time teachers and staff members spent drilling students on basic skills and practicing to take standardized tests.

Rigoberta Menchu Elementary School

Menchu Elementary School was the best example in our field research sample of schoolwide development of instruction. Subject matter and instructional material became more intellectually challenging and connected to students' experiences outside of school. Introduction of new subject matter became more effective and review and repetition was reduced. Student assessments specifically tailored to the curriculum were instituted in 1997-98 to help teachers better identify individual student's learning needs.

Menchu's Annenberg external partner had been working with school staff to implement a comprehensive literacy program for several years prior to the Challenge. Although it differs somewhat at the primary and intermediate grade levels, this program is based on instructional strategies for reading and writing that call for a balance between skill practice, literature-based activities, writing across the curriculum, and addressing multiple learning styles. Menchu's Annenberg external partner and most teachers and administrators agree that these strategies have strengthened the overall quality of instruction at the school.

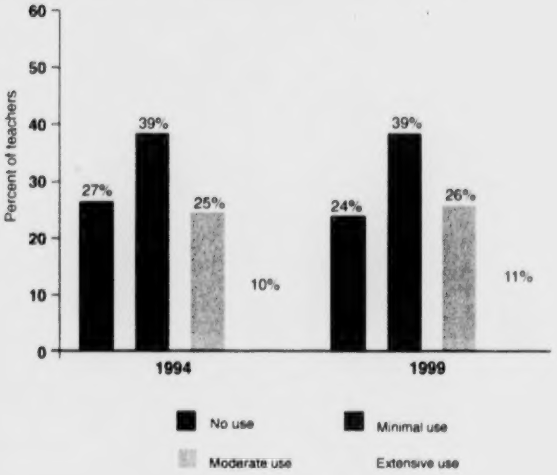
There was also an increase in the use of practices like literature circles and small group collaboration on writing, a marked improvement in general classroom conduct, and a reduction in student-teacher conflicts. Classroom observations recorded between 1996 and 1999 revealed that teachers not only continued to use the literacy framework, but incorporated more elements as time went on. In interviews, teachers corroborated what we observed, that every year they made greater use of the elements of the literacy program than the year before.

Development Across Annenberg Schools

Data from teacher surveys indicate that teachers' use of interactive instructional strategies in reading and language arts increased systemwide between 1997 and 1999 while their use of interactive strategies in mathematics declined. These changes are statistically significant. On the other hand, teachers' use of didactic instructional strategies in both reading and mathematics remained about the same in 1997 and 1999. Overall, in reading, teachers made more extensive use of strategies to promote depth of student understanding, analysis, and problem solving. There was more discussion among teachers and students, more small group work, and more variety in teaching to meet individual student learning needs. In math, teachers on the whole made less use of these particular strategies. We found no significant differences in changes in instructional practices between Annenberg schools and other schools.

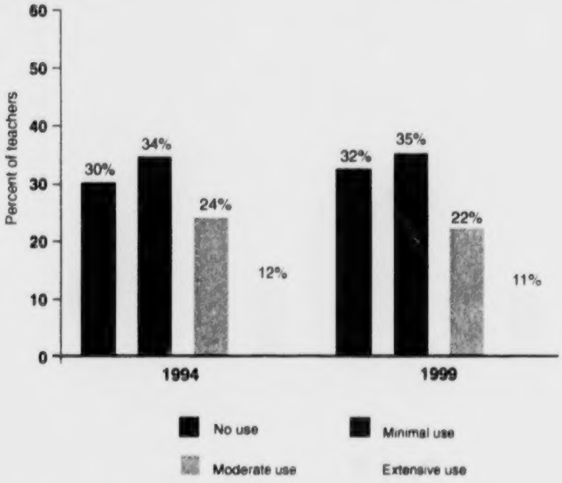
Changes in teachers' use of interactive instruction in reading and math in Annenberg schools are shown in Figures 18 and 19. As seen in Figure 18, slightly larger percentages of teachers in Annenberg schools reported making moderate and extensive

Figure 18
Interactive Instruction in Annenberg Schools
Language Arts



This measure indicates the amount of time teachers spend on having students discuss ideas for most of the class, draw inferences, integrate reading and writing, work on the elements of writing, relate learning to personal experiences, and synthesize ideas and produce original products. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more classroom time on these activities. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 19
Interactive Instruction in Annenberg Schools
Math



This measure indicates the amount of time teachers spend on having students develop scientific writing skills, discuss ideas for most of the class, and develop reasoning and analysis skills. Students also study topics in depth and are required to synthesize information to produce a piece of original work. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more classroom time on these activities. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

use of interactive teaching in reading and language arts in 1999 than in 1994. And, as seen in Figure 19, slightly smaller percentages of teachers reported making moderate and extensive use of interactive teaching in math in 1999 than in 1994.

Social Trust

Examples from the Field

There are several field research schools where trust among teachers, students, and parents grew. We also identified schools where teachers developed more trusting relationships with each other and their principal. In several schools, teachers became more comfortable working with staff members charged with implementing new curricula and teaching strategies. These new relationships supported teachers as they worked to develop their teaching.

Oscar Arias Sanchez Elementary School

In addition to student learning climate, Sanchez Elementary School made substantial progress developing social trust. When we first visited Sanchez, we found that teachers did not often invite outsiders into their classrooms, nor did they openly discuss their teaching. However, because of the efforts of the inhouse literacy coordinator, trust relationships developed that promoted greater teacher participation in the school's literacy program and professional development activity.

Sanchez's previous literacy coordinator was hired from outside the school and was unsuccessful in developing strong working relationships with teachers. The next coordinator was recruited from within the school. Even though she had been a teacher at Sanchez for a number of years, she understood that her success in this new role was dependent upon her ability to develop teacher interest in new strategies and increase receptivity to individual assistance.

The coordinator started slowly. At first she provided only the assistance that teachers requested. In this way she laid a foundation of trust for the productive relationships that followed. The coordinator viewed herself as a service provider:

> I meet with grade levels once a month. . . . I share a strategy with them, [let them] express their concerns, give them whatever I can share with them. If someone shows an interest in drama, then I look it up. . . . I think I am also a peacemaker. . . . The person who was in the position before didn't have a lot of credibility. . . . So I think [it is part of my role] to gain trust and [to show] that I am here for them, to help them. I've got the resource library in here. . . . People need something. They come here. They get it. Then I'll share other things with them.

Because of her patience, greater numbers of teachers began to seek out assistance and that, she believes, is a sure sign of progress: "Maybe last year I was an outsider interrupting their turf, and now it's like, oh God, we need this. Let's go see if she can get it for us."

Development Across Annenberg Schools

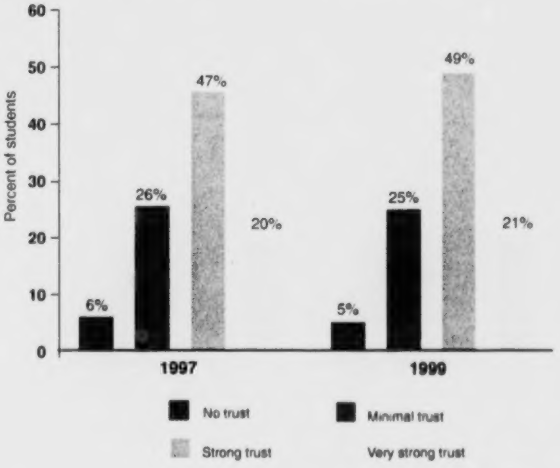
According to student survey data, the levels of trust between teachers and students rose systemwide between 1997 and 1999. This increase was statistically significant. There was also a small, but statistically significant increase in trust between teachers and parents. The levels of trust among teachers and between teachers and principals did not change during this period. Changes in trust relationships in Annenberg schools did not differ from changes in non-Annenberg schools.

Figure 20 illustrates changes in trust between teachers and students in Annenberg schools. It shows small shifts toward strong and very strong levels of trust. Slightly larger percentages of students reported that their teachers care about them, listen to their ideas, make them feel safe, and try to be fair in 1999 than in 1997. Figure 21 shows that when teachers at Annenberg schools were asked about trust relationships with parents, there was a slight downward trend.

Among all our analyses, trust between parents and teachers is the only instance where our school-level and teacher-level analyses differ. One possible explanation for this is that our school-level analyses determine the statistical significance of change in elements

Figure 20

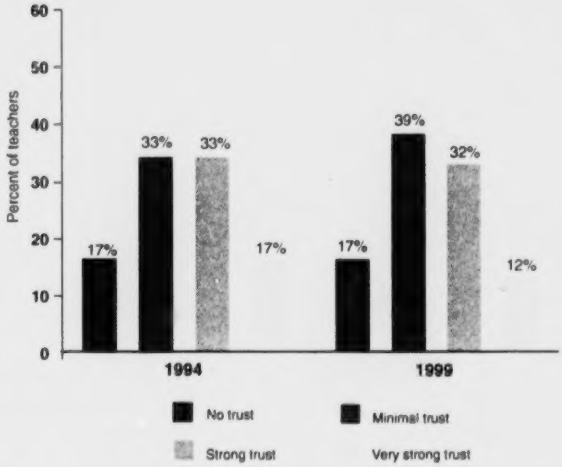
Student-Teacher Trust in Annenberg Schools



This measure focuses on the quality of relations between students and teachers. Students were asked whether they believe teachers can be trusted, care about them, keep their promises, listen to students' ideas, and if they feel safe and comfortable with their teachers. In high-scoring schools there is a high level of care and communication between students and teachers. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 21

Teacher-Parent Trust in Annenberg Schools



This measure indicates the extent to which parents and teachers support each other to improve student learning and feel mutual respect. Teachers were asked if they feel they are partners with parents in educating children, if they receive good parental support, if the staff works hard to build trust with parents, and if teachers respect parents. A high score indicates very supportive relations among teachers and parents. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

of the essential supports and the statistical significance of differences in change between Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools and are controlled for a number of school demographic characteristics including school size. Our teacher-level analyses describe changes in elements of the essential supports across Annenberg schools and do not control for such characteristics. School size may explain the differences in these analyses. In small schools, levels of teacher-parent trust are higher than in large schools. Our school-level analyses revealed a higher level of parent-teacher trust in 1999 than in 1997 (see Appendix D). Our teacher-level analyses showed that parent-teacher trust was lower in 1999 than in 1997 (see Figure 21). The latter analysis did not control for school size and may therefore be skewed to reflect more strongly the views of the greater number of teachers in our sample who teach in large schools.

School Instructional Program Coherence

Examples from the Field

Several of our field research schools have worked specifically to increase the coherence of their instructional programs. Principals have reduced the number of programs in their schools, cutting ones that do not align well with their mission and goals for development. In other schools, principals have worked with teachers to coordinate curriculum and instruction within and across grade levels and promote greater commonality in their approach to instruction. These principals also supply common curricular and instructional materials.

Linus Carl Pauling Elementary School

The principal at Pauling Elementary School has worked hard to focus her teachers' attention on a common curricular and instructional framework. She promotes this framework by finding appropriate resources, involving teachers in decisions concerning the framework, and giving teachers some measure of instructional autonomy within its parameters. Although she strongly supports her teachers, she does not hesitate to press her own views about instruction.

In 1997 and 1998 there were many different programs and external partners at Pauling. Although teachers felt many of these programs worked well, the number of different programs was overwhelming. By 1999, the principal had eliminated all but the Annenberg external partner, whose instructional philosophy matched hers and who had been working with a group of Pauling teachers for several years. Between 1998 and 1999, Pauling's School Improvement Plan (SIP) was revised substantially. Instead of cataloging many unrelated programs and activities, it promoted a single set of instructional practices. The principal explained the importance of this change:

> I think teachers first need to focus on the vision of the school—the words of the SIP. I think that is important because I go to so many schools where the staff and administration say they are doing one thing and the SIP says something totally different.

The principal sees the SIP as more reflective of teachers' opinions and believes that it has helped promote teacher commitment to a more coherent instructional approach.

> [The SIP is] not different, just better. . . . Teachers have full ownership [of the instructional programs] this year. In the past it was, "Yeah, she [the principal] wants to do it," but now . . . they are into it, at least 95 percent of them.

In 1999 the principal established a leadership team and included more teachers in the decision making process. As a result, there is even greater commitment by teachers to the instructional approach.

Development Across Annenberg Schools

Survey data indicate that instructional program coherence rose slightly across the city between 1997 and

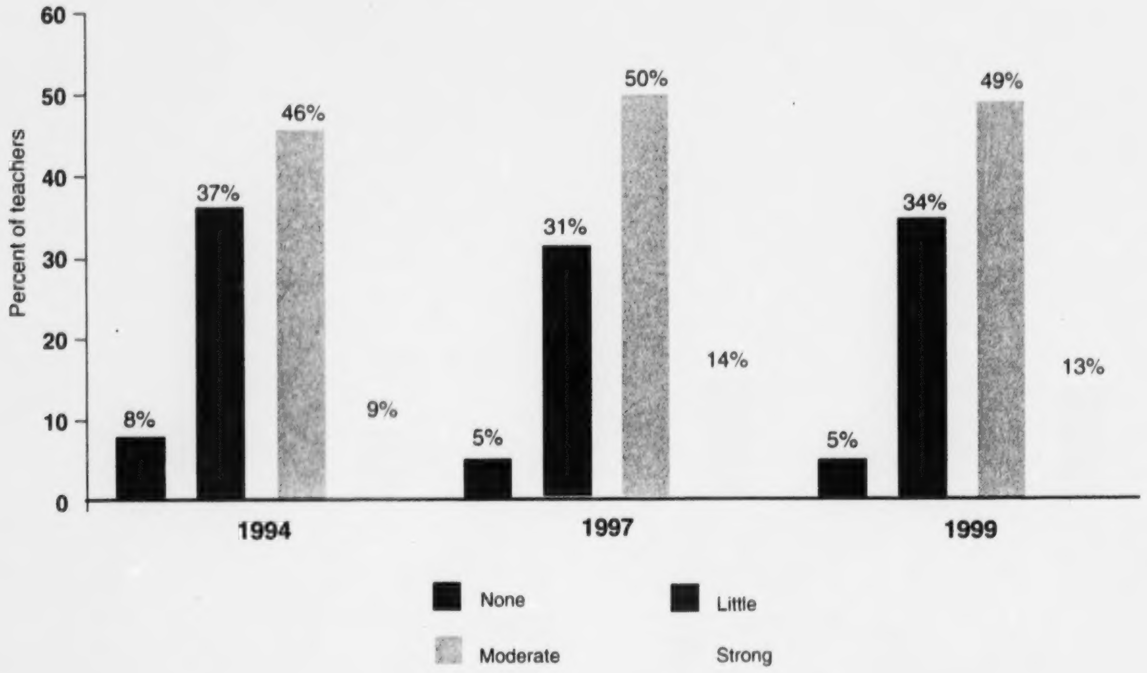
1999, but that this increase was not statistically significant. At the same time, however, coherence in Annenberg schools fluctuated, rising from 1994 to 1997, then declining slightly from 1997 to 1999.[28] This decline is not statistically significant. The net result of these changes is that in 1999 instructional program coherence in Annenberg schools was lower than in demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools. This difference is statistically significant. Figure 22 displays changes in instructional program coherence in Annenberg schools between 1994 and 1999.

Summary of Findings

Between the 1996-97 and 1998-99 school years, every one of the 14 Chicago Annenberg field research schools made a concerted effort to get better, and yet only seven of them developed on one or more essential support. School development was most prevalent in areas of school leadership and teacher professional community and to some extent in parent and community support. We found relatively few instances of schoolwide development in student learning climate and instruction or in the overarching supports of social trust and instructional program coherence. At the

Figure 22

School Instructional Program Coherence in Annenberg Schools



This measure assesses the degree to which teachers feel the programs at their school are coordinated with each other and with the school's mission. Teachers were asked, for example, if the materials in their schools are consistent both within and across grades, if there is sustained attention to quality program implementation, and if changes at the school have helped promote the school's goals for student learning. A high score on this measure means a school's programs are coordinated and consistent with the school's goals for student learning, enabling the development of a high quality core progam. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

same time that we found somewhat slow progress in school-level development, our field research revealed more common instances of development among individual teachers and groups of teachers. We found many examples of individual teachers and groups of teachers working together better and teaching their students more effectively. Although it remains to be seen whether these changes will translate into school-level development, they are a good start.

Analyses of teacher and student survey data reveal patterns of development across Annenberg schools that are consistent with field research findings. Together, survey analyses and field research lead to the conclusion that Annenberg schools indeed developed in a number of small, but significant ways between 1996 and 1999. While much of the development of Annenberg schools reflects school development citywide, there are several areas of development in which Annenberg schools have surpassed demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools.

Annenberg schools have developed in several areas of school leadership. Principal instructional leadership has strengthened, school leadership has become more inclusive, there is more extensive use of joint problem solving, and teacher influence in school-level decision making has increased. The increase in teacher influence in decision making in Annenberg schools surpassed that of non-Annenberg schools. Annenberg schools have also developed in several areas of teacher professional community. Annenberg schools strengthened their focus on student learning and orientation toward innovation, and increased reflective dialogue about teaching and learning. With regard to the last of these changes, Annenberg schools surpassed non-Annenberg schools.

Aspects of parent and community support have also grown stronger. Parents became more involved in schools and provided more support for student learning at home. Teachers took greater advantage of community resources in Annenberg schools than in non-Annenberg schools and Annenberg schools' communities offered more support to students.

Survey data indicate that teacher-student trust developed in Annenberg schools and in schools citywide. These data also reveal no significant change in school instructional program coherence among Annenberg schools.

There was less development in student learning climate and quality instruction than in the other essential supports. Classroom personalism, or the support teachers extend to students, increased in Annenberg schools and schools across the system. At the same time, in Annenberg schools and in schools systemwide, press toward academic achievement and peer support for academic work declined and incidents of disciplinary action increased. There was an increase in the use of interactive instruction in reading and language arts, but a decline in the use of interactive instruction in mathematics in Annenberg schools and schools systemwide. There were no changes in teachers' use of didactic teaching in Annenberg schools or in the system as a whole.

Before the Annenberg Challenge began, Annenberg schools were no different from demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools on our measures of the essential supports. Because our survey measures are school-level aggregations, even the small schoolwide changes we detected signal significant change in how teachers and students report school development. The development we documented in school organizational capacity in Annenberg schools lays a foundation for further development, particularly with respect to student learning climate and high quality instruction. In our final reports, we will be able to draw on five years of data to determine whether the development documented through the first three years of the Chicago Challenge has deepened and extended to other areas.

VI. Student Outcomes

In this section we present an initial look at student academic achievement and changes in several social and psychological student outcomes in Chicago Annenberg schools. We approached our analyses expecting to find little if any improvement. We thought this way for two reasons. First, our analyses examine changes in student outcomes for only the first three years of Annenberg support of school development. Three years is a very short period for any systematic changes in student outcomes to occur, particularly if predicated on meaningful school development.

Second, our analyses of school development show that although Annenberg schools are developing, for the most part their development mirrors patterns of school development citywide. In only a few areas of school organizational capacity—leadership, professional community, and parent and community support—do we see Annenberg schools exceeding more commonly experienced patterns of development. We do not yet see significant differences between Annenberg schools and schools citywide in the essential supports most proximal to student learning and development—student learning climate and instruction. Thus, without yet seeing more systematic breakthroughs in development, we would not expect to find many differences in student outcomes between Annenberg schools and the system as a whole. As the findings we report in this section indicate, we were on target. We will look at student outcomes again in our final reports using five years of data. At that time we will be able to see if some preliminary indicators of student achievement hold up.

Our assessment of student academic achievement was based on analyses of gains on the reading and math portions of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS). In addition, we looked to relevant findings from other Chicago Annenberg Research Project reports that examine classroom tasks and student work as alternative indicators of classroom learning and student achievement.

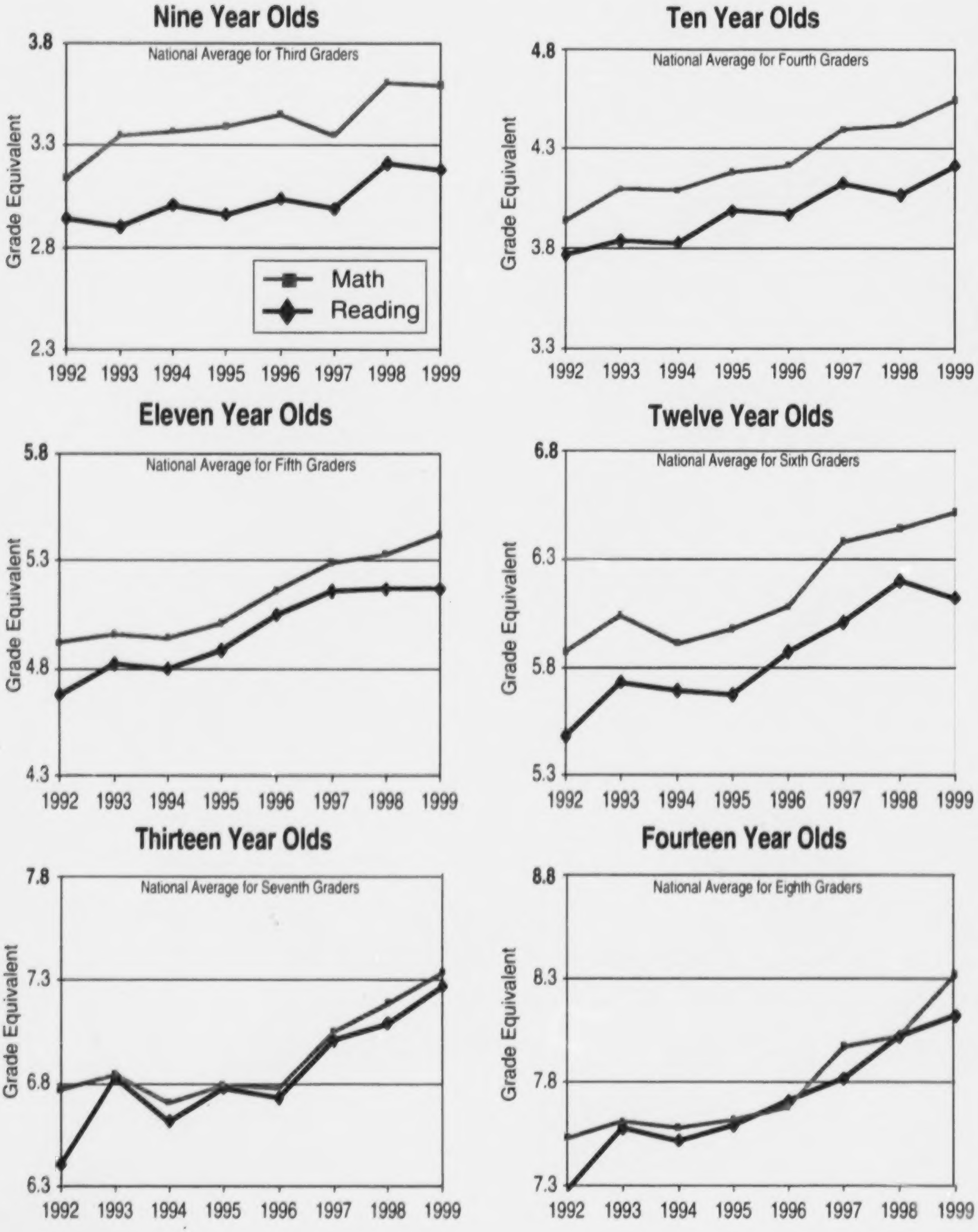
We examined four social-psychological student outcomes: (a) student engagement in school, (b) sense of self-efficacy, (c) classroom behavior, and (d) social competence. Engagement refers to students' interest and engagement in learning and whether they work hard to do their best in school. Self-efficacy refers to students' confidence in their own academic abilities and the possibility for success on even the most difficult work. Classroom behavior refers to the extent to which students in a classroom respect each other, work well together, and help each other learn. It also considers student disruption of classroom activity. Finally, social competence refers to students' sense that they listen well to what others have to say; share, help, and work well with other students; and help resolve arguments. We used data from the Consortium's 1994, 1997, and 1999 student surveys to examine change in Annenberg schools in these outcomes over time and to test for differences between Annenberg and demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools.

Student Achievement on the ITBS

Test scores in Chicago public elementary schools have been rising for several years. A recent Consortium Research Data Brief reported that between 1992 and 1999, ITBS scores have increased in both reading and math (see Figure 23).[29] We compared achievement trends in Annenberg schools with those of demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools and found no statistically significant differences between them in the adjusted gains in student ITBS scores. Thus, we can say that student achievement in Annenberg schools, as measured by the ITBS, has followed general systemwide trends of improvement.

Figure 23

Citywide ITBS Grade Equivalents by Age



Nine Year Olds

Ten Year Olds

Eleven Year Olds

Twelve Year Olds

Thirteen Year Olds

Fourteen Year Olds

Social-Psychological Outcomes

Like student achievement, student social-psychological outcomes in Annenberg schools mirror citywide trends. We found no statistically significant changes in student self-efficacy and social competence between 1997 and 1999 in both Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools. However, we did find statistically significant declines in student academic engagement and classroom behavior during this period in both Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools (see Figures 24 and 25). In other words, students were less interested in their classes and the topics they studied in 1999 than they were in 1997. They were also less likely to work hard to do their best. Moreover, student classroom behavior eroded during this period of time. According to our measure of classroom behavior, students were less likely to get along well, treat each other with respect, solve problems together, and help each other learn. They were more likely to report that students just look out for themselves and disrupt class.

We find these changes discouraging and are uncertain of what might explain them. They may reflect student responses to any number of factors from the quality of instruction to the pressures of high-stakes testing and accountability. Nevertheless, we do not have data that can explain these changes and any effort on our part to do so would be mere speculation.

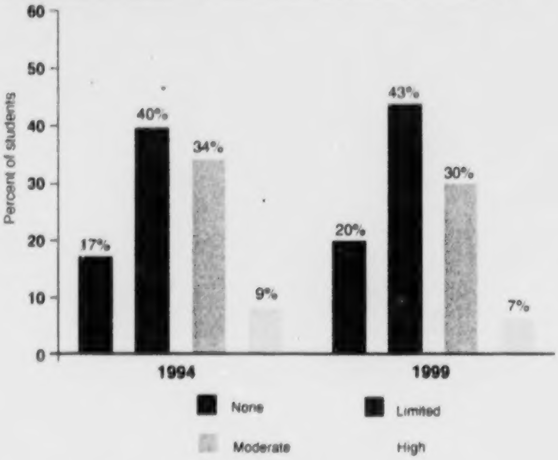
A Look Ahead

In addition to measuring basic skills achievement on the ITBS, the Chicago Annenberg Research Project is examining students' production of high quality, authentic intellectual work in their classrooms that reflects higher-level thinking, interpretation, and in-depth conceptual understanding. Authentic intellectual work involves student construction of new knowledge and elaborated communication of ideas and explanations to others.

We collect samples of classroom assignments from our Annenberg field research schools and score them by their intellectual challenge. We also collect samples of student work produced in response to the most

Figure 24

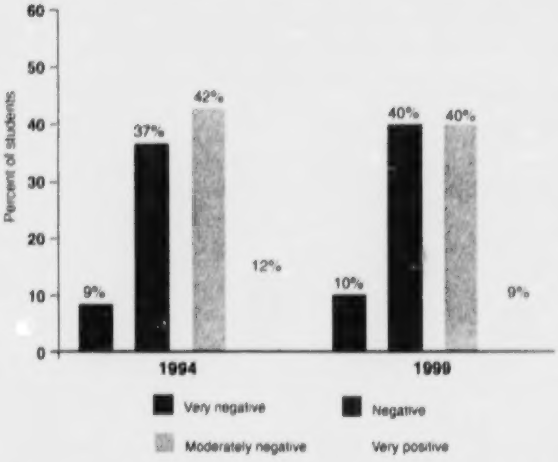
Student Academic Engagement in Annenberg Schools



This measure examines student interest and engagement in learning. Students responded to items regarding whether they are interested in their class and the topics studied. They also reported whether they work hard to do their best. A high score means greater individual engagement in learning. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 25

Student Classroom Behavior in Annenberg Schools



This measure asks if classmates treat each other with respect, work together well, and help each other learn, and if other students disrupt class, like to put others down, and don't care about each other. In high scoring schools, positive behaviors are prevalent, and the problem behaviors are less prevalent. *See Appendix E for a detailed description of the categories charted above.*

Figure 26

Student Achievement is Associated with Development of the Essential Supports, 1996-1999

	Developing Schools		Non-Developing Schools	
Percentage change in proportion of students scoring at or above national norms in reading on the ITBS	Cassin	100%	Schweitzer	42%
	Sanchez	58%		
	Esquivel	54%		
	Mandela	50%		
	Pauling	44%		
	Menchu	24%	Wiesel	29%
	Tutu	0%	Myrdal	24%
			Walesa	18%
			Sakharov	11%
			MacBride	6%
			Borlaug	5%

challenging assignments and score them by intellectual quality. To date, we have collected and analyzed three years of classroom assignments and a baseline sample of student work. During the fifth and final year of data collection for this project, we will gather a fourth sample of classroom assignments and a second sample of student work. In addition to improvement in the challenge of classroom assignments, these samples will also allow us to chart improvement in the intellectual quality of student work. While final analyses of these data have not yet been conducted, we can make some initial observations about student achievement from our analyses to date.

In our first report on classroom assignments and student work, Fred Newmann and his colleagues found statistically significant positive relationships between the level of intellectual challenge reflected in classroom assignments and the quality of intellectual work produced by students.[30] In other words, the greater the intellectual challenge of classroom assignments, the more likely students were to produce high quality intellectual work. The lower the intellectual challenge of classroom assignments, the less likely students were to produce high quality intellectual work. In subsequent analyses, Newmann and his colleagues found significant positive relationships between the intellectual challenge of classroom tasks and one-year gains in student achievement as measured by both the ITBS and the Illinois Goals Assessment Program.[31]

These findings provide evidence that intellectually challenging classroom assignments promote student achievement in terms of both standardized test scores and authentic intellectual student work and suggest that as the intellectual challenge of classroom assignments increases, so too will student achievement. A third analysis of these data indicates that the quality of classroom assignments in our field research schools has increased slowly between 1996 and 1999.[32] We would expect, then, that increases in the quality of student intellectual work—and gains on standardized tests—might follow.

In addition, while we do not see overall differences between Annenberg and non-Annenberg schools on academic achievement and other student outcome measures, our field research provides some preliminary evidence that the school development we are now documenting may lead to gains in student achievement in the future. As shown in Figure 26, in the seven field research schools where development in the essential supports has occurred, the raw school average ITBS scores in math and reading have risen at higher rates between 1996 and 1999 than in the non-developing field research schools. While these average ITBS scores are very rough indicators of academic achievement, the pattern is nonetheless clear that the schools developing on essential supports are also doing better in terms of student achievement.

VII. Promoting School Development: Stories of Three Schools

This section of our report presents stories of three schools and their efforts to promote school development. These stories are based on three years of field research from the 1996-97 to 1998-99 school year. The first two stories are of Nelson Mandela and Rigoberta Menchu Elementary Schools. Both are examples of developing schools. The third is of Myrdal Elementary School, a school that has struggled and achieved relatively little development.

Mandela Elementary School experienced mixed success in its efforts to develop. It strengthened several essential supports including leadership, professional community, and, to some extent, student learning climate and classroom instruction. These successes were brought about by different and sometimes competing agendas promoted by the principal and by a group of teachers working closely with the school's Annenberg external partner. Mandela seemed to make the most progress when these agendas converged. Less progress was made when they did not. Areas where development agendas were not aligned became sources of tension and conflict and might compromise the school's ongoing efforts to develop.

The story of Menchu Elementary School illustrates the coordinated, concurrent development of multiple essential supports with a central focus on instructional improvement. Between 1996 and 1999, Menchu developed school leadership, professional community, quality instruction, and some aspects of parent and community involvement and student learning climate. Menchu's principal and its Annenberg external partner worked together to implement a new literacy program, develop teacher leadership, improve teacher professional development, and strengthen student academic and social supports. Instrumental to Menchu's development was a group of well-trained literacy coordinators who promoted the literacy program and provided onsite professional development opportunities to teachers, new structures for teacher involvement in school-level planning and decision making, and new systems of student and staff assessment and accountability. Teachers became more active in schoolwide decision and policy making. Parent involvement developed through increased volunteer opportunities and parent groups.

Myrdal Elementary School is an example of a school that achieved little success. Efforts to develop leadership, professional community, and parent involvement faltered for a variety of reasons and compromised other efforts to promote instructional improvement. A somewhat autocratic principal, the departure of key teacher leaders, and a weak relationship with its Annenberg external partner affected Myrdal's development of the essential supports and made it difficult for the school's development efforts to gain traction. Both in 1996 and in 1999, Myrdal's principal made most decisions with little teacher input. Teachers seldom met except for social occasions. Even when given opportunities to collaborate, most teachers chose not to do so. Parent involvement was essentially nonexistent and there were no strategies to improve it. The school's physical plant was in disrepair and lack of discipline and frequent classroom interruptions seriously hindered efforts to develop instruction. Student behavior was chaotic, instruction focused on basic skills, and there was little instructional program coherence.

Our intention in presenting these stories is to provide rich descriptions and insights into the processes, complexities, and problems in promoting school development. These stories are works in progress and we have yet to see how they will turn out. Each ends with particular issues, tensions, or dilemmas that may play important roles in ongoing development. Their experiences, together with all of our 14 field research schools, suggest specific lessons about how schools develop. These lessons will be presented in the next section of this report.

Nelson Mandela Elementary School

Mandela is housed in a turn-of-the-century building on a tree-lined street. Enrolling slightly less than 700 students in pre-kindergarten through eighth grade, Mandela's student population is mostly African American and 85 percent low income. Even so, Mandela serves fewer low-income students than more than three-quarters of Chicago's public elementary schools. At the same time, more of Mandela's students are in foster care than 90 percent of CPS schools. Of ongoing concern to Mandela's principal and teachers is the school's low academic performance. In 1996, students scored at around the 30th percentile on the reading and math portions of the Illinois Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS). Not quite half of the school's eighth-grade students graduate from a Chicago public high school.[33]

A Determined Principal

Efforts to promote school development at Mandela have come mainly from two sources—the principal, Mr. Knight, who was strongly influenced by CPS central administration policies, and a group of teachers who worked closely with Mandela's Annenberg external partner and network. Their agendas for school development converged in some areas, but conflicted in others.

When we began our study of Mandela, Knight had been the principal for five years. From the beginning of his tenure, he established a steady presence that gave the school a feeling of tradition and stability. A strict disciplinarian, he was often seen in the hallways greeting teachers, dealing with administrative details, and speaking with students and parents. He paid close attention to CPS central administration policies and took their implementation seriously. He supported other initiatives for school development when they meshed with his own beliefs about good classroom instruction. Knight was determined to promote the success of his students. He saw CPS policies and his own ideas about good teaching as the best ways to help his students succeed. He pursued each with determination.

Knight held particularly strong views about the need for teachers to reduce their reliance on lectures and other whole class instructional methods and to place more emphasis on teaching students in small groups. He made these views clear to his teachers and to us in an interview:

> I don't believe in whole class teaching. When I came here that's what they were doing. Some people still want to do it. But I tell them that I don't want that because I don't think it's the best way to teach reading. . . . I tell them I expect them to teach in small groups. . . . I am very adamant about that . . . particularly with primary. . . . I tell them, "Just do it for me. You know what I'm looking for."

Knight has described his leadership as inclusive, but evidence suggests that it can be peppered with authoritarian decision making. He admitted that there have been times he has taken action based on his personal beliefs rather than on a group consensus, especially about what he considers to be good teaching practice. In our interviews, teachers seemed to accept his leadership style. Some were thankful that they were given any opportunity at all to express ideas and offer opinions about Knight's proposals. For the most part, teachers were neither critical nor especially complementary of their principal. One offered a view that seemed consistent with most teachers' feelings, "I would say the leadership is very respectful and expectations are high."

A Collaborative and Influential Group of Teachers

In 1996, Mandela began working with its Annenberg external partner, the university-based Teachers' Development Collaborative (TDC). TDC focused on two major development goals—building teacher leadership and professional community, and improving classroom instruction. It worked to achieve these goals by forming teacher work groups within schools, bringing those groups together in across-network events, and providing network and school-level professional development. TDC assumed that through collaborative work and learning, teachers would be able to identify the best means for improving instruction. Because the TDC network focused on instruction in the sixth through eighth grades, only teachers from these grade levels participated in its activities.

In 1996, a group of sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade teachers began to meet once a week before school with a TDC staff member. During these meetings they developed group goals, discussed how to run effective meetings, planned professional development activities, and kept up-to-date on information from the network. These same teachers met at other times during the week to share new ideas from conferences they attended, discuss curricular and instructional issues such as thematic units and the use of literature circles, and brainstorm on how to implement advisory periods well.

Some Mandela teachers also participated in network leadership meetings organized by the external partner. At these meetings, teachers planned development activities for their own schools and the network. They also used these meetings to exchange information and attend professional development sessions led by outside experts in subject matter content and instruction. Teachers from Mandela who participated regularly in these network activities saw immense benefit from the opportunity to interact with teachers from other schools. They brought back what they had learned to their school and organized development activities there.

The group of Annenberg teachers worked in relative isolation from the principal and from other teachers. Although Knight kept abreast of and consented to the Annenberg group's activities, he rarely joined them. These teachers distinguished themselves from their colleagues. Because the group focused on the upper grades, teachers at lower grades were not included. From the inception of the group, Mandela teachers were very much aware of who was an "Annenberg teacher" and who was not. Those who participated were usually the most active in taking advantage of outside learning opportunities such as attending regular network meetings, going to state and national conferences, or pursuing coursework for a middle school teaching endorsement. Annenberg teachers were regularly seen working with the external partner and they appeared to be the only teachers who met regularly on their own time. Teachers from the lower grades made inconsistent use of their common weekly planning period for meetings or collaborative work.

Although Annenberg activity at Mandela began with a very specific focus and involved teachers from only the sixth through eighth grades, its influence on school development grew over time. Annenberg teachers were able to assert their ideas about instructional improvement in small ways. They also became models of collaboration for others and, by 1999, collaboration was being emphasized throughout the school. One school leader noted:

> Many of the [external partner's] ideas have been adopted, the whole school is adopting them, such as the team meetings. They have team meetings at the primary level, and that's fine because you need that articulation regardless of grade level.

Knight agreed that the Annenberg teachers' work had an impact on the rest of the school. Some teachers who did not participate in the Annenberg group began to express interest in working together more as a school-within-a-school. Knight himself began to encourage grade-level teachers and departments to operate more as teams, setting aside more time for collaboration with designated teacher leaders.

The influence Annenberg teachers had on their colleagues is illustrated well in the development of Mandela's School Improvement Plan (SIP). The SIP played an important role at Mandela. It was followed closely and guided decisions concerning school development. Throughout the period of our study, teachers worked on the committee that developed the SIP. In 1998, teachers in the Annenberg group joined the committee. This allowed them to assert their agenda and direct resources to support it. Seeing the influence exercised by the Annenberg teachers, other groups of teachers began meeting and in 1999 they had developed goals they wanted to include in the SIP.

Different Agendas—Some Convergence, Some Conflict

Beyond the development of teacher collaboration, Mandela's principal and Annenberg teachers pursued different agendas for school development. Knight focused primarily on improving student test scores and school discipline and safety. He strongly emphasized building test preparation into routine classroom instruction and moving teachers away from their reliance on whole class teaching methods toward small group instruction.

Knight also supported teacher professional development and he provided his staff with many different opportunities to pursue it. A newly hired reading resource specialist was available to consult with teachers from all grade levels both individually and in groups. Money for substitute teachers was available on a limited basis for teachers to attend professional development activities, provided those activities were focused on school priorities. Some day-long teacher institutes were scheduled on curriculum alignment and other CPS initiatives. Guest speakers were occasionally brought in to lead these in-service programs.

Although the principal and the Annenberg teachers pursued different agendas, they converged around the issue of reducing the size of instructional groups. The group of Annenberg teachers stressed the importance of developing more personalized, supportive teacher-student relationships; using small instructional groups and student advisories to promote those relationships; and promoting more contextualized instruction, integrated, cross-disciplinary thematic units, and literature-based approaches to teaching reading and language arts. By 1999, Mandela was able to reduce class and instructional group size. Students were placed in small groups for reading instruction. Classes in the upper grades were divided in half during resource periods. Older students participated in small group advisories. In kindergarten, classroom parents were hired to assist teachers and provide more individualized instruction.

Although Mandela made progress in this area, there remained several others where school development efforts lacked alignment and even produced some tension and conflict. While Knight emphasized the importance of school security, order, and discipline, Annenberg teachers sought to develop departmentalized teaching in the middle grades. Knight's concern over security, discipline, and safety was rooted in his perception that Mandela students were unable to control their behavior. Increased gang activity in the neighborhood only exacerbated this concern. For Knight, students changing classrooms created the potential for misbehavior and disorder. Therefore, in 1999, he eliminated departmental scheduling for many eighth-grade students. To Knight, increasing order and preventing unruly behavior took precedence over the curriculum. The teachers we interviewed corroborated this.

Knight and the Annenberg teachers also disagreed on what should be the primary focus of classroom instruction. Knight firmly believed in the importance of student performance on the ITBS and the Illinois Goals Assessment Program (IGAP). He explained in an interview, "You better remember what the bottom line is when it comes to how they are going to rate our schools and our jobs. And that is a score." Mandela's SIP for the 1998-99 school year reflected this emphasis on testing. It included plans to better align all aspects of the curriculum with the ITBS and IGAP, and to integrate test-taking skills throughout teachers' lesson plans.

Within this context, Mandela's Annenberg teachers worked to develop and implement more contextualized instruction, greater use of thematic units, and a literature-based approach to teaching reading and language arts. The Annenberg coordinator at Mandela provided the following example of what the group was trying to accomplish:

> We sat together and tried to develop an interdisciplinary unit and the theme of the unit was harmony. We thought about how we could integrate the idea of harmony into social studies and in reading. It was more difficult in math, but there were some things that the math teacher came up with in terms of word problems that were based on harmony. . . . [But,] it's been fragmented. You know your first time has snags. After we finish advisory, we're going to sit down

> and discuss what worked and didn't work and what we can do to make it successful for next year. So that's a goal we have for the future.

Another Annenberg teacher expressed how important it was to develop instruction that connects students to real life experiences:

> Every time I put my lessons together . . . I have found that if I don't try to make it applicable in some sort of way or relate it to their interests . . . I lose them. . . . [I] help them get meaning from [the subject matter]. You know, "What's the purpose of all this?" "What significance does it have?" "How does it connect to my life, to my experience?" That's the way I motivate them to be enthusiastic about the lesson.

The Annenberg teachers' efforts to develop instruction often clashed with the emphasis placed on student performance on standardized tests. It was evident from interviews with teachers and the principal, as well as the school's SIP documents, that classroom instruction was driven overwhelmingly by the tests. One teacher characterized the influence of standardized tests:

> A very huge deal. That's the top priority, teaching to the standardized tests, making sure we cover the skills that are going to be on the standardized tests. A top priority, I mean . . . a top priority.

She continued with a description of how her personal classroom instruction was influenced by the tests:

> I prepare [the students] for the test throughout the year. The principal really emphasizes to us at the beginning of the year not to wait to start covering the skills and the content but to do it throughout the year. [Then,] two weeks before the test what I usually do is give them a practice test just to get them prepared as to how the test is going to look.

The Annenberg teachers expressed frustration over the emphasis Knight placed on the tests. At the same time, they conceded that the school was essentially graded on how well the students scored and that teachers must therefore work to enhance student performance. Further, the Annenberg teachers noted that while they tried to use a more literature-based approach to teaching reading and language arts in their classrooms, it was often difficult given the context. It seemed even more difficult to imagine how the instructional improvements developed by the Annenberg teachers and the external partner might spread to other teachers at the school, particularly to those who relied on basal texts and were reluctant to integrate subject matter content.

In all, although Mandela made progress developing leadership, professional community, and instruction and student learning climate from its movement toward smaller instructional groups, its success appears tempered by the lack of alignment among multiple development agendas and the tensions and conflicts that lack produced. Mandela may find other areas where these agendas can converge and, hopefully, more progress toward school development will be made. Unfortunately, this may be difficult to accomplish in the short term. At the end of our 1999 field research, we learned of growing conflict between Mandela's Annenberg coordinator and the principal over a number of issues. The conflict had apparently grown intense enough that the coordinator was planning to leave the school. Neither the coordinator nor the principal mentioned this problem in their interviews. Nevertheless, this situation clearly makes Mandela's ongoing efforts to promote school development more complicated.

Rigoberta Menchu Elementary School

Menchu Elementary School is located in a community that has been economically devastated by a decline in industrial manufacturing. Most community members lost their jobs when local plants shut down. As a result, poverty in the area is very high. Only 59 percent of adults in the community are high school graduates. Ninety-five percent of Menchu's students come from low-income families. The school population is more than 60 percent Mexican American and approximately 30 percent African American. With more than 1,300 students and 80 faculty members, Menchu is one of the largest elementary schools in the city.

Menchu is working hard to help its students succeed not only in school, but also in life. The school is committed to giving students and the community something more. The principal, Mr. Fuentes, explained:

> I think that the underlying principle for me is that there's a lot of injustice for children. . . . All the adults in this building should be working for advocacy and justice for kids. . . . It's not enough improving the academic life for kids. . . . We've got to improve the quality of life. Kids . . . have to say, "I have the power to do. I have the power to change my life."

Between 1993 and 1999, Menchu and its external partner, Urban Opportunities, implemented an extensive range of coordinated school development initiatives. At the center of these initiatives was a comprehensive literacy program. The school and its external partner worked to develop school leadership and provide strong professional development for teachers around this program. In addition, Menchu and Urban Opportunities worked to develop a more effective academic and social support system for students, including increasing parent involvement and support from local community organizations. Menchu's relationship with Urban Opportunities predated its association with the Annenberg Challenge.

A Comprehensive Literacy Program

Since 1993, Menchu has worked with Urban Opportunities to implement a comprehensive literacy program. At the primary level, the program is built on a well-established national reading program that has been used by school systems for more than 20 years and is supported by considerable empirical evidence that it is effective with low-income, academically at-risk students. At the intermediate and upper grades, Menchu's literacy program was developed from the work of several regional literacy projects.

Although it has different components at the primary and the intermediate and upper levels, the literacy program is organized around a broad set of principles that balance basic skill development with more intellectually rigorous literature-based instruction. It integrates reading and writing, promotes writing across the curriculum, and incorporates thematic learning, student assessments, home and community involvement, and consideration of multiple learning styles. Moreover, it emphasizes the importance of teacher professional community to support its implementation.

During the 1997-98 school year, Menchu and Urban Opportunities launched individualized reading assessments for students in kindergarten and the first and second grades. These assessments were administered to students three times a year and they helped teachers identify what students needed to understand in order to progress to the next level of instruction. They also served the broader functions of promoting a common language among teachers for discussing student achievement, making concern for student growth a more public issue, promoting a focused evaluation of programs, targeting differentiated services, and supporting decisions about the allocation of resources.

Implementing these assessments effectively was a massive undertaking and the school faced many challenges. The primary grade literacy coordinator was responsible for assessing students in 20 classrooms. The effort required recruiting volunteers to help coordinate the testing activities and manage the extensive amount of records that were generated. Teachers had to find time to administer these assessments while juggling their already heavy teaching loads.

Developing and Expanding School Leadership

A key strategy for promoting this literacy program and school development in general was the development and expansion of school leadership. This occurred in three ways. First, Urban Opportunities worked closely with Fuentes to develop his leadership capacity. Second, as discussed below, new full-time teacher leadership positions were established to promote teacher professional development and instructional improvement. Third, new opportunities were created for expanded teacher involvement in school-level planning and decision making.

In 1996, with support from Urban Opportunities, Fuentes organized an Improvement Council to set overall goals for the school and to develop and monitor Menchu's SIP. The Council also served as a forum where teachers could bring their concerns. Council members were representative of the whole Menchu community and included an assistant principal, a counselor, two literacy coordinators, two school-community representatives, and a teacher from each grade level.

Initially, Fuentes planned and led the Improvement Council's meetings and teacher members carried information back to their respective grade levels. When Urban Opportunities first recommended that teachers be more proactive in setting and monitoring policy, most were reluctant. One teacher said, "We're here to hear what's coming down, and we're not of the mind set of what we should send up." With time, however, teachers felt they needed to be more involved in decision making. The Council realized it needed leadership training and, by 1999, it had developed to the point where the principal was more a participant than director. The Council chose its own facilitator and recorder. Council members developed meeting agendas with the principal rather than by the principal alone, and minutes were distributed to all faculty members and to the Local School Council. The Council had become more cohesive, focused, and resolute than it had been in past years.

The growth of leadership at Menchu, particularly among its teacher leaders, is illustrated well in events surrounding the Improvement Council's development of the 1999 SIP. Urban Opportunities had helped the staff conduct a comprehensive review of school operations through extensive data collection and analysis. Together, Urban Opportunities and the staff identified the school's strengths and weaknesses and had begun to set priorities for the coming year. At the final planning meeting, the Council's teacher members came prepared to assert themselves.

Prior to this meeting, the teachers had caucused to include a new proposal in the SIP. That proposal would name the school's literacy program as the framework for teacher evaluation. In doing so, these teachers made public what they believed to be a long-standing problem in the school—administrative tolerance of low-performing teachers. The proposal charged Fuentes to take action. This was the first time that teachers had challenged the administration so directly. It was also the first time that teacher leaders had taken a public stance to promote faculty accountability. Although the proposal did not appear in the final version of the SIP, Fuentes planned to use the literacy framework to guide future teacher evaluations.

Fuentes was placed in the difficult position of maneuvering between different groups of Menchu teachers. Teachers on the Improvement Council wanted him to push harder and take low-performing teachers to task. The literacy coordinators, teachers released from their classroom teaching duties to help their colleagues implement the literacy program, felt overburdened and under-appreciated. They looked to the administration to provide more support for their work. In addition, by pushing harder for teacher accountability, Fuentes knew he risked creating new tensions between himself and low-performing teachers who were already feeling alienated. Fuentes had to work through these dynamics and try to build the consensus, commitment, and trust needed to promote and sustain schoolwide implementation of the literacy program. These tensions and dilemmas set out important challenges for Menchu's expanded base of leadership. It remains to be seen how they will be resolved and what impact they may have on the school's development efforts.

Promoting Teacher Professional Development

With the help of Urban Opportunities, Menchu created impressive internal resources for teacher professional development. Much of this professional development was focused on implementing the literacy program and was provided by three literacy coordinators. These coordinators worked full time to acquire curriculum materials, provide professional development to the rest of the faculty, develop and administer student assessments, and work with small groups of special needs students. Menchu's literacy coordinators also met twice a month with literacy coordinators from the other schools in Urban Opportunities' Annenberg network. They received 300 hours of training to prepare for their new leadership roles.

Menchu's professional development opportunities for classroom teachers evolved in character and intensity. During the 1996-97 school year, the literacy coordinators provided two-hour workshops after school every week and teachers received either a monetary stipend or continuing education credit for their participation. The coordinators also established and stocked a learning resource center and responded to requests from teachers for advice and assistance in implementing various elements of the literacy program.

The following year, the literacy coordinators continued to offer half-hour workshops before school once a week, but they began to shift their focus from workshops to observing and coaching individual teachers. By this time, its was estimated that 95 percent of teachers had been exposed to the literacy program. Fuentes and the literacy coordinators recognized that deeper change would come only with hands-on learning and so each coordinator took responsibility for coaching five teachers. In addition, Fuentes began to visit each classroom teacher with a literacy coordinator and another grade-level teacher. For many teachers this was the first time they had observed their colleagues in their classrooms and had been observed in turn. In some cases, these visits led to further observations and collaboration. One coordinator gave the following example:

> [Two upper grade teachers] watched each other do their science lesson. One of them has been here a long time and has all kinds of equipment that the other one didn't know we had. And now they're sharing this stuff.

The classroom visits also sent a strong message that Fuentes was serious about improving instruction. For the most part, teachers praised the training they received. Faculty rated their professional development far above that of most other schools on the 1999 Consortium survey. One teacher told us, "The bottom line is, [over] the last three years, I've learned more than I've learned in 23 years."

These professional development initiatives contributed substantially to the literacy program's implementation. Between 1996 and 1999, most teachers had come to use at least some of the program's instructional strategies in their classrooms. There was evidence from our classroom observations and interviews that teachers incorporated more elements of the framework as time went on. At the same time, Menchu's 1999 self study reported that 18 percent of primary teachers and 21 percent of intermediate- and upper-grade teachers did not incorporate the literacy practices in their teaching, or did so only at a minimal level. One literacy coordinator explained that some teachers were simply slow to change: "The teachers are slow to turn around mainly because we . . . have a lot of faculty who are seasoned, a lot of people have been doing it the same old way. . . . It's going to take time."

Although Menchu's internal resources for professional development were unusually generous, the average teacher may not have received much training. Literacy coordinators were available to help teachers in their own classrooms, but, considering the breadth and complexity of the program, it would take a long time for them to work individually with 80 teachers. Further, because the teachers' union contract stipulated that teachers needed to be paid for working beyond the school day, Fuentes felt he could not allocate funds to schedule more professional development sessions after school or during the summer. Finally, Menchu was also in need of building greater professional capacity by attracting and retaining talented teachers and encouraging low performers to leave. As far as we know, Fuentes had not tried to counsel out any weak teachers or use the formal dismissal process.

Strengthening Parent Support

During the period of this study, a large number of Menchu parents were actively involved in the school. About 30 parent volunteers worked on site every day. Most helped in classrooms or worked on various projects that provided books for students. There were eight different parent groups at Menchu including a bilingual advisory council, a community resource development committee, and the Local School Council. In 1997, Urban Opportunities helped the school to better organize and support its parent groups by establishing an umbrella parent leadership committee to coordinate the different groups' activities and reduce confusion and overlap in their work.

More than volunteering in the school, however, the most crucial ways parents can support their children's learning is by making sure homework is done, limiting television, and getting their children to school on time.[34] By this measure, Menchu's parent coordinator estimated that in 1999 approximately one-half of parents were doing a good job of supporting their children academically. Evidence from 1999 Consortium surveys of sixth and eighth graders confirmed this.

The majority of teachers with whom we spoke reported that they reached out to parents to inform them about the status of their children's progress and involve them in homework assignments. According to one literacy coordinator, these efforts did not always meet with the greatest success:

> Those parents who are willing and able to be involved are involved . . . appreciate being contacted and will work with you. Those parents that aren't, aren't. You always have that contingent for a variety of reasons. Either they're working and struggling . . . or they've got their own issues with alcohol and drugs, and homelessness, and all kind of other issues, and they can't see past themselves. . . . When we can't get the parents' support, we try and do whatever we can for the kids here.

Menchu also developed ongoing relationships with at least seven different community organizations. One of the most important was with a nearby hospital that provided students with preventative health care such as immunizations and physical exams and made available a clinic for students with chronic illnesses.

So Many Students with Special Needs

For more than 10 years, Fuentes had challenged his Menchu staff to cultivate an orderly school climate centered on personal concern for students and high academic expectations. Before joining the Annenberg Challenge, he instituted a monitoring system to track individual student attendance, achievement, and behavior. Every five weeks parents received a report showing attendance, grades, test scores, participation in special programs, and specific comments from teachers. School staff kept track and informed parents of the progress their children were making and the challenges they faced.

Although Menchu worked hard to identify and monitor students with special needs, it had difficulty supporting them adequately. Menchu's 1998 self study revealed that it did not have the capacity to properly evaluate and serve its approximately 200 special needs students. The following year, in order to decrease the backlog of special services, Mr. Fuentes hired an additional counselor and worked with Urban Opportunities to get a new team of specialists from CPS to work in the school. While this effort helped, the backlog remained. The need to serve the large number of special needs students strained the school's resources and posed a particular challenge to its continuing efforts to raise instructional quality.

Alva Myrdal Elementary School

Myrdal Elementary School serves children from kindergarten through eighth grade. Its surrounding neighborhood has changed considerably since the school was built. Single-family homes near the school have turned into multi-tenant buildings. Gang and drug activity has become prevalent in the area and crime has risen. At the time of our field research, the building was in a general state of disrepair and space was at a premium. Myrdal enrolls about 600 students of which approximately 85 percent are low income. In 1997, less than 20 percent of students scored at or above national norms in math and reading on the ITBS, putting the school in the lowest-performing tier of CPS schools. About 41 percent of Myrdal students graduate from high school.

According to its SIP from 1997 to 1999, Myrdal's development initiatives have been focused on strengthening reading instruction, cultivating leadership, facilitating better communication among teachers, and increasing parent involvement. Included in the plans were specific initiatives relative to each area. While the school's staff generated some of these initiatives on its own, most were initiated by Myrdal's Annenberg external partner, the Reading Success Center (RSC).

A New Reading Initiative

During the 1996-1997 school year, RSC trained school-based reading coordinators from each school in its network. The following year, these coordinators returned to their schools and provided professional development to their colleagues through after-school workshops and visits to other network schools. In order to offer continued support and training, RSC hosted half-day meetings every two weeks for the network's coordinators and established demonstration classrooms for teachers to visit.

In 1997-98, Myrdal's two reading coordinators ran weekly site-based workshops, conducted demonstration lessons in other teachers' classrooms, distributed books and supplies related to the reading initiative, helped teachers clarify confusion about teaching practices, observed teachers and provided feedback, and tutored student reading groups. Teacher participation in the workshops was voluntary. At first, participation in the workshops was low, but attendance increased when the principal began offering teachers continuing education credit, cash stipends, and books for their classroom libraries. Initially, teachers were also hesitant about inviting the coordinators into their classrooms for observations. With time, however, the coordinators became adept at initiating invitations.

The RSC reading initiative asked teachers to adopt common approaches to instruction but did not require content standardization or a particular content sequence across grades. The reading coordinators distributed the RSC curriculum to intermediate- and upper-grade teachers with accompanying lessons that corresponded to state goals and the Chicago Academic Standards. Teachers decided which of the plans they wanted to use for a set of lessons and the coordinators checked on their progress. One coordinator explained her role this way:

> I check up on them. I'm sort of like the reading cop around here. . . . I'm not power hungry, but when I go into the room, I see that awareness; they know I'm representing some real instruction here, and some changes in the way we do things.

Although improving reading instruction was Myrdal and RSC's most recognizable school development goal, we found little evidence of improvement in classroom teaching from 1996 to 1999. In about half of the classroom lessons we observed, the dominant emphasis was on basic skills. The other half of the lessons emphasized some combination of basic skills and higher-order understanding. Teachers and students were usually engaged in academic work, but on average at least 80 percent of class time was spent on knowledge acquisition and skill practice. Faculty reported there was virtually no curricular coherence within or between grades. A sixth-grade teacher who had taught fifth grade the year before said his colleagues had not prepared students in the same way he had:

> At the start of this school year, I found that these students weren't able to do what I started off last year with my fifth-graders. . . . We [teachers] don't connect like we should, and I really don't see that it's going to happen, even if we had a common time to meet. If that teacher feels

that their student is not ready for that material, then they are not going to teach it. That's it.

Promoting Collegial Interaction and Collaboration

In 1997-98, teachers interacted once a week in reading workshops led by RSC. Some met once a month in a teacher leadership group and others met twice a month in a social service concerns group. RSC staff facilitated these meetings. Grade-level meetings were initially scheduled for every other week, but this schedule was changed to once a month. Teachers indicated that these meetings rarely occurred and were not occasions for serious collaboration when they did. Informal weekly faculty meeting were held before school in 1998-99, but most of these were occasions for social interaction rather than collaborative work.

Although most teachers reported that the meetings they attended did not prompt much in the way of collaborative work or reflective inquiry, several teachers indicated that in meetings with RSC, especially within the teacher leadership group, important issues were raised that got faculty to think about student learning. One teacher described how RSC's findings that Myrdal students in the lower quartiles made greater achievement gains than those in the middle and upper quartiles led to a school program to nurture higher achieving students. Another teacher spoke about how findings from student assessments helped her generate new ideas:

> I think I've been able to generate more thought. . . . When you're talking to people on the outside there is an exchange, dialogue, ideas they share that you may not have seen. That sparks some kind of inspiration in you too.

Similarly, although teachers were encouraged to take advantage of professional development opportunities by their principal, and some spoke positively about external professional development experiences, the school was unsuccessful in ensuring that this learning was shared. There were workshops on in-service days during which teachers presented ideas they had learned, but attendees at those workshops often could not articulate the benefits they received from hearing their colleagues speak. When outside presenters were brought in to speak about different topics, teachers could not remember what the sessions addressed. In general, it seemed that teachers at Myrdal did not find many of the professional development opportunities to be relevant to them or their work in the classroom.

At the beginning of the 1998-99 school year, common planning time was provided for teachers to meet in grade-level groups. Although there was an initial attempt to use this time productively, it quickly disappeared. One teacher explained that common planning time failed because teachers were too often busy with other matters:

> You have something to do on your own time, xeroxing, talking with a parent, whatever. So that common period is not there. We didn't use it. I didn't use it. I took that prep time to do what I have to do. I can talk to you later over a cup of coffee.

As a whole, teachers at Myrdal felt it was more important to work alone in their classrooms than to collaborate with colleagues. In 1999, teachers rejected an opportunity to restructure the day and create more common planning and meeting time.

Developing School Leadership

In order to develop school leadership at Myrdal, RSC staff provided one-on-one mentoring to the principal, Mrs. Clark. RSC also involved her in monthly meetings with other principals in the network and in annual strategic planning meetings with Myrdal staff. Teachers and administrative staff held monthly leadership team meetings in an RSC-initiated effort to promote more teacher input in school decisions. In addition, the principal asked faculty to volunteer to serve on committees to write different parts of the SIP. None of these initiatives were successful. Teacher leadership was also promoted through the weekly school-based workshops held by the reading coordinators. This was also an RSC initiative. As noted above, these workshops met with mixed success.

Promoting Parent Involvement

During the time of our field research, parent involvement at Myrdal was rare. Clark estimated about 75 percent of parents came to special events in which their children were featured. On average, however, only three parents volunteered in the school each day. One teacher said:

> We don't get enough parent participation. . . . We're constantly trying to find ways to get parents into the school as often as possible. For example, raffles. We're doing as much as we can, but don't get enough.

There was some activity in 1996-97 by RSC-supported school social services to promote greater parent participation, but by 1998-99 there was no improvement and no further activity in this area. Myrdal staff and RSC may have lost interest in increasing parent involvement given their lack of success in the past.

Lack of Traction for Development

In 1999, Myrdal seemed no better off in terms of how it operated as an organization and how it helped students to learn. The initiatives started in 1997 had all but disappeared. There are many possible reasons for Myrdal's lack of development in the essential supports. Overall, conditions at the school prevented development initiatives from gaining traction and moving forward.

While the primary impetus and support for Myrdal's development efforts came from its Annenberg partner, the two organizations never developed a strong working relationship. One of the school leaders described the communication between the school and partner as nearly nonexistent:

> If I was this confused for so long, and I was heavily involved, I can imagine how others in the school felt . . . they too did not understand [the partner's] goals well enough to take them on themselves and implement them. It's a critical component of introducing any new program to the school . . . you need to make sure that the stakeholders understand what is expected.

This same leader also observed that RSC had a difficult time convincing teachers of the credibility of its approach: "[The faculty] could see this [was] still in the planning stage. I heard people say, 'We felt like guinea pigs, part of an experiment.'" This undermined the partner's efforts to engage teachers and promote development.

Myrdal's efforts to improve reading instruction faltered with the loss of its reading coordinators. By 1998-99, both coordinators trained by RSC had left the school for other positions. One new coordinator had been hired, but was not fully trained and reading workshops were no longer held on a regular basis. One teacher with whom we spoke thought that the loss of the reading coordinators had damaged instructional improvement efforts and instructional program coherence:

> There is not a lot of cohesiveness within the reading program. It could be a cohesive plan, but the wonderful coordinator left the school. . . . When you start something new like this, it was totally new to me, you need continued help. Without her, we are struggling.

Not surprisingly, with no fully trained coordinators, teachers complained that the program didn't work. There was a drop-off in classroom support. In addition, teachers struggled in the absence of adequate instructional materials. There were not enough books to support the reading initiative—each classroom had five to seven books to share among all students.

Student behavior at Myrdal verged on the edge of chaos. Although a plainclothes security guard watched the school entrance and students were supposed to be accompanied by their teachers at all times, students were unruly and noise in the hallways was always high—often because teachers were yelling at students. Discipline was a major problem because of a lack of firm and consistent adult enforcement. Classroom learning climate was generally supportive, but teaching and learning was often interrupted by frequent and needless announcements over the public address system. These issues made efforts to develop instruction extremely difficult and little was done to address them.

Despite attempts to develop their sense of community, teachers were reluctant to meet and discuss their efforts to teach and foster student learning. They would not use the leadership team to express their concerns to the principal. The principal had no plan for promoting better teacher working relationships and involvement in school leadership. When asked how she might better engage teachers, her response was "Make them."

In addition, the direction that was set for improving instruction was also inconsistent. According to Clark, instruction was driven by the Chicago Academic Standards: "I keep a portfolio on all of them . . . they turn in lesson plans and I check them once a week. I make sure they are following the Chicago Academic Standards." She also explained that the main reason the school emphasized reading and math was to stay off probation. RSC promoted a different framework through its reading initiative.

Teachers also lacked accountability. When asked how instruction might be improved, one teacher said his colleagues should be held accountable through classroom visits. He concluded, however, that in reality this would never happen: "[Evaluations will] be rephrased to say that these students have a poor understanding of fractions instead of faulting the . . . teacher."

No efforts were made to foster a deep commitment to any of Myrdal's school development efforts or to the school itself. Indeed, teachers' lack of commitment was compounded by Clark's encouragement of some of the school's best teachers to obtain an administrator's certificate and find a better job at another school.

Finally, despite positive changes, principal leadership remained problematic. When we began studying Myrdal in 1997, Clark was in her third year as principal and had served as assistant principal for 10 years prior to her appointment. When asked to describe her approach to leadership, she explained:

> I want things done yesterday. I will listen. I'm collaborative—to a certain extent, but . . . I try to push people toward my own way of thinking. I'm a member of the team, but I have the final say so. It's really very democratic. As far as having power, they really don't have much power, but they can come to me with issues. I've acquiesced a lot of times because of their pressure.

There were some teachers who offered encouraging comments about Clark's leadership, saying that she was becoming more open to faculty input and more democratic in decision making, occasionally visiting classrooms, and encouraging teachers to pursue continuing education opportunities. On the other hand, a number of teachers criticized her for failing to enforce school policies consistently, showing favoritism, reverting to authoritarian behavior, and failing to develop a clear professional development program. According to both school and RSC staff, the problems with communication and distrust among teachers at Myrdal were directly attributable to Clark's leadership. Clark was also criticized for impulsively adopting one innovation after another rather than working in a focused and sustained way on a limited number of initiatives.

VIII. Promoting School Development: Initial Lessons

In addressing our third research question, we studied our field research schools looking for patterns of activity, resources, leadership, and contextual supports and constraints that distinguish developing schools from non-developing ones. From these patterns, we have been able to derive four initial lessons about how school development may be promoted:

1. School development is associated with the coherent, concurrent development of multiple essential supports.

2. School development is associated with the development of strong distributive leadership.

3. School development is associated with a complementary array of external resources that are aligned with development of the essential supports.

4. School development is associated with the use of multiple strategies that are appropriate both for the type of change that is sought and the context in which it is sought.

School development, as defined by the Model of Essential Supports, is an intentional, goal-directed activity. Therefore, we would expect strategic planning and action to play a key role in developing schools. Our fieldwork tells us that although intention, forethought, and planning are integral to school development, chance can also have an effect. Development does not always follow a linear course; it is sometimes unpredictable and seems more attributable to serendipity than to any rational effort on the part of a school to promote it. Likewise, development can be stalled, sidetracked, or derailed by unanticipated events and unintended consequences.[35]

This is not to argue that strategic planning and action are not important. If a school were to adopt any of the lessons we present in this report, it would need to do so strategically. For example, one theme that is present across all four lessons is the importance of coherence. Coherence is important for focusing development activities, cultivating and distributing leadership and agency, employing the necessary combinations of mechanisms to promote development, and securing and using external resources to support it. It is hard to imagine achieving such coherence by chance.

Lesson #1: Targeting Multiple Essential Supports

The first lesson we draw from our field research is that school development is associated with a coherent focus on multiple essential supports. In schools where we found the most development, change initiatives focused on the coordinated development of several essential supports at the same time. We found that coordinated development of multiple supports creates synergy toward overall school development. This lesson is consistent with other Consortium research described in Section III and with observations in the literature that school development requires long, steady work that is not focused solely on the implementation of specific programs and policies, but on the broader development of school organization and practices.[36]

Why would a school be more likely to promote development by targeting multiple supports? As we discussed in Section III, and as our field research demonstrates, the essential supports are not discrete, independent elements. Rather, they operate as related parts of a system. The supports that represent key organizational capacities—school leadership, professional community, and parent and community support—are crucial for developing and supporting school practices—student learning climate and quality instruction—that in turn are instrumental for promoting student learning and development.

Our field research suggests that the success of efforts to develop learning climate and instruction may

Figure 27

Developing Schools Target Multiple Essential Supports in a Coordinated Manner

	Developing Schools	Non-Developing Schools
Schools that target multiple essential supports in a coordinated manner	Cassin Esquivel Mandela Menchu Pauling Sanchez Tutu	Myrdal Walesa
Schools that target only one essential support or several supports in an uncoordinated manner		Borlaug MacBride Sakharov Schweitzer Wiesel

be related to previous or concurrent development of school organizational capacity. For example, to create and sustain a well-paced challenging instructional program, there must be strong leadership to support it. There must be a strong professional community of teachers who work together to coordinate curriculum, achieve consistency in its expectations for student learning, develop intellectually rigorous tasks, and engage students in those tasks. It is unlikely that such a professional community can thrive over time if school leadership does not help develop it and provide enough time and resources to get its work done. Overall then, focusing on one essential support may promote development of a particular support, but that development is likely to be limited and difficult to sustain if there are weaknesses in others.

Figure 27 categorizes our field research schools according to their overall development and their focus on single or multiple essential supports. With a few exceptions, the distribution of schools among the cells in this figure indicates that development on even one essential support is associated with efforts to address multiple essential supports in a coordinated manner.[37]

This lesson is well illustrated by the stories in the previous section. Menchu made a systematic effort to develop several essential supports and developed substantially between 1996 and 1999 as a result. Menchu and its Annenberg partner formed a schoolwide improvement council to foster more inclusive leadership among teachers and administrators. The external partner trained in-house literacy coordinators to work with teachers on student assessments and instructional methods. Menchu sought to increase parent involvement and the level of personal contact between adults and students.

Mandela Elementary School also worked to develop multiple essential supports, albeit with sometimes competing agendas. Mandela's Annenberg external partner organized a group of teachers to develop professional community, promote professional development, and improve student learning climate and instruction. At the same time, the principal focused his energy on increasing student test scores, improving student discipline and safety, and promoting small group instruction. Although the Annenberg teachers and the principal focused on different areas of school development, their work converged around small group instruction. Moreover, other teachers began to emulate the Annenberg teachers' more collaborative working relationships.

Myrdal Elementary School presents a counter-example to Menchu and Mandela. Myrdal's efforts to develop instruction were undermined by its failure to develop other supports. When the school began working with its Annenberg partner in 1997, it focused on raising the quality of reading instruction. Even though initial progress was promising, weak school leadership and teacher professional community undermined its efforts.

Other schools in our field research sample also illustrate this lesson. While all seven of our improving field research schools worked to develop multiple essential supports in a relatively coordinated manner, most of the non-improving schools either focused on one support or addressed multiple supports in an uncoordinated manner. For example, although Borlaug Elementary School established a strong program to foster parent involvement, it did little to strengthen other essential supports. As a result, parent and community involvement did not develop further and, not surprisingly, Borlaug failed to strengthen other areas of school organizational capacity, student learning climate, or classroom instruction.

There were some schools in our field research sample that worked to develop multiple essential supports but were not identified as developing. These schools' efforts lacked coherence; their efforts were fragmented. Teachers and school administrators often worked in opposite directions and failed to accomplish much at all. At Sakharov Elementary School, for example, individual teachers and small groups of teachers spent a great amount of time in school development activity, but that activity was not coordinated around a common vision. Communication among faculty was weak and teachers were too busy working on their own projects to pay much attention to initiatives at other grade levels. Specific development efforts failed in large part because others competed for teachers' time and attention. Few initiatives were able to attract a critical mass of teachers large enough to make them work.

Lesson #2: Distributing Leadership for School Development

While our first lesson focuses on the aims of development, the second focuses on the different figures that lead development efforts. When we look closely at our field research schools, we see that the strength and breadth of school leadership distinguishes developing schools from non-developing ones. We found that principals play an essential role as key agents for change. Where they actively promote, support, and assume responsibility for development, the school is much more likely to be successful. Yet, beyond the important role that a principal plays, we found that development is facilitated by the distribution of leadership to others in the school community. This does not mean that the principal is replaced; rather, others assume and share various leadership tasks with the principal. By expanding leadership, schools are able to bring in additional expertise and energy, and broaden agency and responsibility for development.

The relationship we found between school development and the distribution of leadership is consistent with several other studies of leadership and the implementation of complex educational change. For example, Marjorie Heller and William Firestone found that implementation of a complex curricular innovation was strongly associated with the shared performance of six leadership tasks by persons in a variety of overlapping roles rather than by one "heroic leader."[38] David Mayrowetz and Carol Weinstein made similar findings in their study of school-level implementation of special education inclusion.[39]

More recently, James Spillane and his colleagues argue for the importance of viewing leadership from the perspective of activity rather than position or role and from the perspective of the school organization rather than an individual person.[40] In their ongoing research of 13 Chicago elementary schools, Spillane and his colleagues found that the performance of different leadership tasks was often distributed among multiple leaders. In this way leadership practice becomes potentially more than the sum of each individual's effort.

In our field research, we found examples of the following leadership tasks being performed to promote school development:

- Creating and sustaining a vision of school development across multiple essential supports
- Engaging others in school development initiatives
- Promoting coherence among those initiatives
- Providing incentives and opportunities to develop staff knowledge and skills
- Developing curriculum and student assessments
- Monitoring, providing encouragement, and holding school staff members accountable for

progress made toward school development

- Obtaining external resources for school development
- Managing external influences on the school in ways that support development

There were schools in our field research sample in which these tasks were not performed solely by the principal, but spread across several different positions.

As shown in Figure 28, we found a positive relationship between leadership distribution and school development. Five of the seven schools with the most development in the essential supports exhibited higher levels of leadership distribution, whereas six of the seven schools we classified as non-developing had lower levels of leadership distribution. In developing schools, principals played an important role by virtue of the authority associated with their position and their access to key internal and external resources. On the other hand, non-developing schools were more likely to have a single source of consolidated leadership or simply have weak overall leadership.

Figure 28

Developing Schools Have Strong Distributed Leadership

	Developing Schools	**Non-Developing Schools**
Schools with strong distributed leadership	Esquivel Mandela Menchu Pauling Sanchez	Walesa
Schools with consolidated or weak leadership	Cassin Tutu	Borlaug MacBride Myrdal Sakharov Schweitzer Wiesel

The different leadership roles that promote school development are outlined below. We acknowledge the argument made by Spillane and his colleagues that distributed leadership is best understood by the interplay of leadership practices among these actors and across their roles, but in this report we examine the leadership roles of key actors and their individual contributions.[41] We remind the reader that no matter which actors are involved, a key to success is that these multiple agents are working together toward a common goal.

Principals

Principals are often at the center of successful development activity. In our field research we found that the most effective perform a number of common leadership tasks. They articulate a clear, coherent vision of strong instructional practice and effective school organization. They communicate high expectations for teachers as both instructors and leaders of development and they press teachers to meet those expectations. These principals persistently promote the development of professional competence and leadership capacity among staff members and can be counted on to provide the resources to support that development. Principals at our developing schools distributed leadership among others but also could be forceful and directive to ensure that the school stayed focused and that the work got done.

Principals in our developing schools effectively managed their schools' external resources. They skillfully obtained the human, intellectual, and material resources needed to support their schools' development efforts. They established strong, productive relationships with their external partners and with central administration staff. Moreover, these principals effectively protected their schools and their development efforts from external distractions and interference. And, when distraction and interference did affect their schools, they worked to minimize any disruptive effect.

Principals were also among the first in the school community to feel the sparks of external pressure and opportunities for change. This put them in a unique position to initiate development. And, because they had the opportunity to marshal external support, principals could couple the initiation of development activity with an influx of new resources to fuel it.

Like Menchu, Pauling Elementary School is an example of a positive relationship between distributive leadership and school development. Before joining the Annenberg Challenge in 1997, Pauling's principal had introduced many different academic and social programs to the school, most of which were unrelated and pulled the school in different directions. By 1999, however, she had become almost exclusively committed to the Annenberg external partner's philosophy of teaching and learning. As a result, many unrelated programs and organizations were eliminated from the school and the external partner's instructional program was made the organizing theme of the School Improvement Plan (SIP). This simplification allowed teachers to learn more about the Annenberg partner's goals. A growing number began to participate in the partner's development activities and use the program in their classrooms.

How the principal accomplished this change was critical to Pauling's transformation from a fragmented school to one centered on a coherent instructional program. Instead of deciding on her own that the school should refocus, the principal extended new leadership opportunities to teachers and helped them conclude for themselves that this was the best direction for the school. She used the external partner to facilitate school improvement planning meetings and extended to teachers substantial responsibility for crafting the school's SIP. In doing this, she helped teachers assume leadership roles, consider the adoption of this program as their own, and place it enthusiastically at the center of their school's development agenda. The principal also extended leadership opportunities to a newly hired administrative team that included a budget manager and an in-house instructional programming coordinator.

Sanchez Elementary School joined the Annenberg Challenge with strong leadership in place and, building on this foundation, continued to develop. The principal worked closely with the Local School Council to secure funding from CPS to construct a new building. He hired a new maintenance staff, an assistant principal, and a well-trained, full-time in-house literacy coordinator to offer teacher professional development. He clearly articulated goals and expectations for instructional development and held staff members accountable for achieving them. He created opportunities for teacher leadership through his implementation of a committee structure. As teachers saw the positive effects of their influence in this planning, more became involved and the base of school leadership expanded.

The principal at Sanchez made two decisions that were key to the development of the school's leadership capacity. First, he made the in-house coordinator position a full-time one, which provided a substantial resource for instructional development and clearly demonstrated his commitment to improving literacy. Second, he hired an assistant principal to assume some of his administrative duties. This allowed him to focus more time and attention to development at both the school and classroom levels. Over time, the in-house coordinator became the backbone of literacy initiatives at Sanchez. The principal actively supported her by monitoring the program's progress and securing additional resources for the program. The work of the principal and in-house coordinator, buttressed by teacher leadership in school-level planning and decision making, supported the successful adoption and implementation of new instructional practices at Sanchez.

In the experiences of Myrdal and Cassin Elementary Schools, low levels of distributive leadership or weak principal leadership can impede a school's efforts to develop. Cassin's principal made authoritarian decisions that, while helping the school develop in coherence and professional development, alienated teachers from the development process. When he eventually initiated forums for teachers to participate in decision making, some had come to dislike and distrust him so much that they left the school or with-drew to their classrooms. Myrdal's principal failed to provide strong instructional leadership and despite the establishment of leadership groups, did little to develop her teachers' capacity to lead. The failure of the Annenberg external partner's effort to foster teachers' work in leadership groups was in part due to staff turnover and lack of teacher interest—both a result of the principal's failure to provide adequate support.

Teacher Leadership

When working in conjunction with their principal, teacher leaders can be powerful change agents in school development. They contribute additional expertise, skills, and perspective. They help create and sustain a vision for school development and their assistance is crucial in promoting and engaging other teachers in development initiatives. Teacher leaders facilitate professional development, monitor and hold other staff accountable for developing their practices, and help the school obtain external resources.

Mandela and Menchu schools provide two of the strongest examples of teacher leadership among our field research sites. As we have already noted, Mandela's Annenberg teachers provided leadership in two ways—promoting small group instruction and modeling professional community for others in the school. They played an active role in their school's improvement planning and budgeting processes. Menchu teachers worked with their principal on an improvement council to shape a vision and strategy for improving literacy teaching and learning at the school.

At several other schools, teachers provided leadership through participation in school-level decision making. At Sanchez, for example, teachers proposed and implemented policies to safeguard instructional time and create a more personalized student learning environment. Teacher committees at Sanchez met regularly and monitored all aspects of school life. They used their school's SIP to stay focused on development goals and took responsibility for identifying areas in which the school needed to get better. As a result, teachers instituted a new schoolwide "no interruptions" policy to protect instructional time and they voted to begin the school day earlier in order to bank time for collaborative work and professional development.

We found several patterns in the development and exercise of teacher leadership across our field research schools. In developing schools, teacher leaders were proactive in planning and implementing school development initiatives. They worked collaboratively with their colleagues, Annenberg external partners, and principals. We found that teacher leaders' influence may be mitigated if their principals do not share and support their ideas, or if their principals make decisions that contradict and subvert their efforts. There were several instances where principals introduced new programs that drew time and energy away from the teacher leaders' development efforts. There were also several instances where teacher-led development was stalled by lack of time, inadequate material support, and principals' decisions to endorse and support some teacher-led efforts but not others. Overall, we found principal support to be crucial to the success of teacher leadership.

In-House Coordinators

One particularly notable way that leadership has been distributed to teachers in our fieldwork schools is through the creation of full-time in-house coordinator positions. These new positions focus primarily on the development of classroom instruction. Half of the schools in our field research sample had at least one in-house coordinator. These coordinators were usually teachers from the school who had been released from their classroom duties in order to help other teachers develop classroom practice. Selected because of their excellence in teaching and their ability to work well with colleagues, these teachers were usually trained by their Annenberg external partners to use promising professional development and mentoring strategies to promote the partners' curricular and instructional philosophies, programs, and practices at the classroom level.

The in-house coordinator represents a specific approach to developing teacher leadership. It draws on the knowledge and skills of a school's best teachers and extends them as a resource to others. In-house coordinators can create professional development opportunities for teachers and strengthen their school's professional community. Because they hold full time positions, coordinators can work around teachers' schedules and, most importantly, work individually with teachers to implement new practices.

The in-house coordinator's success is influenced by a number of factors, including the selection of the right candidate for the position, the nature of his/her working relationships with other teachers, and how long the coordinator remains in this position. We found examples where poor working relationships and lack of collegial skills hampered the effectiveness of in-house coordinators. We also found instances of progress being derailed when highly effective coordinators left their schools for other teaching or administrative positions. In addition, some in-house coordinators were occasionally asked by principals to perform tasks that went beyond their defined responsibilities working as substitutes, hall monitors, and school tour guides. In our interviews, several coordinators spoke of the difficulty of being able to do their mentoring and professional development work when they were being asked to spend large amounts of their time doing other work.

The specific work these in-house coordinators performed varied among our field research schools. Overall, however, creation of these positions usually led to important changes in school leadership. Coordinators led workshops, worked individually with teachers, observed classroom practice, and obtained new curricular and instructional materials. These teacher leaders became focal points for professional development and teachers began to turn more often to them than to their principals for instructional expertise and assistance. Moreover, coordinators often assumed the role of liaison between teachers and principals and they facilitated communication with the Annenberg external partner and other schools in the Annenberg network. We found these types of roles performed by in-house coordinators at Menchu, Sanchez, Esquivel, and Pauling—all developing schools.

Local School Councils

Among our field research schools, Local School Councils (LSCs) did not typically play a visible or proactive role in school development. Nevertheless, in developing schools, they did perform certain key leadership functions. They supported principals and other school leaders and their agendas for school development. Generally, these LSCs considered curriculum, instruction, and other matters related to teaching and student learning to be the domain of principals and teachers. They rarely tried to initiate new development efforts on their own. Instead, they took their lead from principals, teacher leaders, and external partners and worked to secure financial, material, and in some instances political resources to support the school's development work.

One of the most important forms of LSC leadership and support we documented concerned the development of school facilities. Several LSCs in our fieldwork sample effectively lobbied CPS for funds to repair or replace classroom buildings. At Pauling, Sanchez, and Mandela schools, new or repaired facilities supported school development by reducing overcrowding and improving the climate for teaching and learning. This finding is consistent with a 1997 Consortium study that found that LSC members claimed solving problems of poor facilities and overcrowding in schools as one of their greatest accomplishments.[42]

Lesson #3: Securing External Resources

Many different types of resources are needed for school development. These include people, time, money, and materials. They also include ideas and expertise, leadership, political support, beliefs and values, and social trust. Which new external resources a school may need is dependent upon the areas it seeks to develop, the strength of its internal resources, and the external resources it has already accumulated.

External resources for school development may come from a variety of places—the central administration, external partners, community organizations, and parents. Under-resourced and under-developed schools may depend a great deal on external resources to promote development. Indeed, failure to secure adequate external resources may constrain or thwart development efforts.[43]

Our field research schools drew from several different sources of external support. Many had multiple external partners and other service providers. Among these schools however, CPS and the Chicago Annenberg Challenge stood out as the two most prevalent sources of external support. Beyond supporting basic school operations, CPS supplemented several of our field research schools with budget directors, instructional consultants, and probation managers and partners. Moreover, the central administration's capital initiatives funded badly needed repairs, renovations, and new construction at several schools.

The Chicago Annenberg Challenge linked schools with new human and intellectual capital and provided modest financial resources to support school development. Annenberg external partners brought ideas and expertise, focus, and impetus to spur their efforts. Through networks, partners expanded the intellectual and social resources available to individual schools by linking them with others engaged in similar development activity. Annenberg grants, while averaging no more than one percent of a school's operating budget, were used to purchase important resources for school development such as in-house coordinators, teacher professional development, classroom libraries, and new instructional materials. The Challenge also provided some technical assistance to schools and their external partners in the form of workshops, conferences, and consultations with Challenge staff. Finally, participation in the Challenge helped schools lever additional resources. A notable example can be seen in schools that are working with their Annenberg external partners to increase parent involvement and cultivate stronger, more supportive relationships with organizations in their communities.

Overall, principals at Annenberg schools have viewed participation in the Challenge as an important means to bring new resources to their schools. On both the 1997 and 1999 Consortium surveys, principals reported that participation in Annenberg networks brought their schools useful resources, prestige, and in-kind services. They also reported that participation increased their own ability to secure resources. Principals tended to be more positive in 1999 than in 1997 about the extent to which Annenberg participation helped them achieve this.[44] In addition, Annenberg principals were increasingly positive about the support they received from parents and community organizations. Between 1997 and 1999, the proportion of principals who reported positive support from community organizations increased from 20 to 44 percent. During this period, the proportion of principals reporting that parent support made their work easier increased from 38 to 53 percent. Moreover, principals tended to be positive about the support they received directly from the leadership and Challenge staff. On both the 1997 and 1999 surveys, about 85 percent of principals said that Challenge leadership was supportive of their networks. In both years about half of Annenberg principals credited Challenge staff with making network participation easier.

While CPS and the Annenberg Challenge made new external resources available to schools, our field research points to a more complicated story about the relationship between securing additional resources and school development. We found that developing schools were generally more effective than non-developing ones at searching for, securing, and taking advantage of external resources. At the same time, what distinguished developing from non-developing schools was not simply entrepreneurial ability; some non-developing schools were very good at obtaining external resources. Rather, it was the developing schools' ability to secure resources aligned with a particular agenda and their ability to employ these resources in an efficient and effective manner.

Several of our non-developing schools had relatively few resources. This was usually a result of trying and failing to obtain them, or making little concerted effort to do so. It was apparent that a lack of resources at these school constrained development efforts. There were also several non-developing schools that had

Figure 29

Developing Schools Are Supported by External Resources Aligned with Development Efforts

	Developing Schools	Non-Developing Schools
Schools with strong and aligned external resources	Esquivel Mandela Menchu Pauling Sanchez	Walesa
Schools with weak or non-aligned external resources	Cassin Tutu	Borlaug MacBride Myrdal Sakharov Schweitzer Wiesel

substantial resources, but they were acquired in an indiscriminant manner and were not aligned with the school's development agendas. These resources were fragmented and distracting. Moreover, these schools did not always use their resources to their full potential.

Figure 29 displays the positive relationship between external resources and school development. Five of our seven developing schools were successful in securing a strong base of external resources aligned with their school development efforts. Among our non-developing schools, six out of seven failed to secure an adequate base of external resources or had resources that did not align with or support development efforts. Our field research sites provide numerous examples of how schools secured external resources that contributed to school development. We focus here on those resources provided through Annenberg external partners.

Esquivel Elementary School was mentioned in Section III for its strong instructional program coherence. When leaders at Esquivel learned of the opportunity to apply for a Chicago Annenberg Challenge grant, they focused their network around their own instructional program. They sought out additional resources through Annenberg to support what they were already doing rather than adding another possibly unrelated program.

Likewise, Menchu secured Annenberg funds to continue working with its external partner. Menchu made effective use of the resources it received from its Annenberg grant and external partner. The external partner brought experts into the school to train literacy coordinators on effective practices. It also helped develop the principal and student service staff's leadership skills. The external partner worked with the principal to involve teachers in schoolwide decisions. In addition, it provided a new curriculum, student assessment materials, and teacher professional development.

Pauling's Annenberg external partner helped develop the school's professional community with human, social, and material resources. It provided a consultant to model lessons for teachers, work in classrooms, and give feedback. The consultant recruited more than a dozen teachers to attend an intensive summer workshop coordinated by the partner. The network also provided teachers with books and videos on different instructional methodologies. Pauling's principal saw substantial benefit in her relationship with the Annenberg external partner. She praised the organization's staff members and raised additional non-Annenberg funds to buy more of their time.

The principal at Sanchez actively sought out advice and resources from his Annenberg external partner. The partner was particularly helpful during the selection process for the school's literacy coordinator. Once the coordinator was chosen, the partner's staff trained and supported the coordinator in her new role.

In addition to the principals working closely with their Annenberg external partners, it was a group of teachers at Mandela who took greatest advantage of the partner's resources, spending large amounts of time in professional development and planning meetings. These teachers received monthly Saturday workshops, a consultant who helped them plan development efforts, and access to numerous seminars, lectures, and workshops throughout the city.

Non-developing schools either did not have adequate external resources or did not manage them well. For example, after they lost their reading coordinators, Myrdal suffered from a lack of properly trained personnel to support its professional development activities. By 1999 there was no longer a fully trained reading specialist at the school.

At Sakharov, the principal was possibly too good at bringing in external resources. The abundance of outside grants, support from CPS, and business partnerships left teachers frustrated with the inconsistent quality of programs, conflicting approaches, and too little professional development for too many programs. At Sakharov and other schools with fragmented development efforts, school leadership did not strategically coordinate resources and align them with the school's development goals.

Lesson #4: Employing Multiple, Reinforcing Strategies for Change

Our final lesson is perhaps the most complicated and the most important. Our field research findings are consistent with the literature on educational reform indicating that there are no "quick fixes" or "cookbook solutions" for school development.[45] Like the literature, our research shows that successful school development is achieved not just from the "top down" or "bottom up," but also from the "inside out" through a combination of strategies that most effectively develop teachers' "will" and "skill."[46] There was no single program or initiative that provided one of our field research schools with everything it needed to develop. Our analyses show that school development is associated with combinations of complementary, mutually reinforcing strategies instead of a reliance on any single one.

Literature on educational reform identifies three types of mechanisms by which change may be promoted at the school and classroom levels.[47] The first consists of bureaucratic, normative controls and sanctions that compel individuals and schools to take specific action. The second consists of incentives to prompt voluntary action. The third consists of learning opportunities that develop new knowledge and skills and, from that development, evoke new action. The literature indicates that none of these mechanisms alone is likely to promote and sustain school development over an extended period of time.

Developing schools in our field research sample were more likely than non-developing ones to use a variety of strategies to trigger development, but they did not use them in any particular combination or order. Different mechanisms were instrumental in sparking development activity in each of the schools. Some were motivated to act by the threat of administrative sanction; others were prompted by the adoption of a promising new approach to teaching. In no instance, however, were the mechanisms that initiated the action adequate to sustain development over an extended period of time without the introduction of others.

Although we are not able to detect any patterns in the strategies developing schools used to change, it is possible that a school's particular situation and resources may call for a specific combination, or for certain ones to be used before others. For some schools, the most effective means to initiate change may be the introduction of a new accountability system. For others, this strategy could be completely ineffective. Likewise, professional development might motivate teachers at one school to adopt new practices, but be largely ignored at another.

Our field research does not lead us to suggest that the use of only one mechanism will not evoke some form of change at a school. We found numerous instances where one mechanism appeared to prompt members of a school's staff to make changes in their work but such changes were generally small and were not likely to extend to other areas. For example, several teachers might be inspired by a professional development workshop to spend more time working with students on in-depth assignments, but their adoption of this new approach would only be a single change in their practices and not necessarily development of high quality instruction. If another type of mechanism such as accountability to the principal or CPS central administration were added to professional development, it is likely that more teachers would make long-term and positive developments in instructional quality at the school.

Some principals and external partners offered teachers various incentives to encourage participation in and commitment to new teaching practices. These came in the form of monetary stipends, public praise and encouragement, time to work with colleagues or pursue professional development, consultations with experts, an increase in classroom autonomy, and opportunities to exercise greater influence in decision making. The Annenberg grant application and renewal process also motivated development. Principals and teachers wanted to show progress to sustain their funding.

Numerous opportunities for learning and development were available to teachers, principals, and other school staff at our field research schools. These included workshops and conferences, collaborative planning and work groups, networking with teachers from other schools, working with in-house coordinators, new mentoring relationships, access to professional journals, and an increase in opportunities for general collegial interaction. In several schools, external partners worked to expand school leadership. They encouraged principals to meet regularly with one another for professional development and to discuss issues their schools were facing.

Finally, there were a number of controls at work in our field research schools. In most of our field research schools CPS retention and probation policies were highly influential sources of accountability and control for both principals and teachers. In fact, there were a number of principals who created additional monitoring and accountability systems. Several enforced specific expectations for staff and student performance. At one school, the Annenberg external partner instituted a formal review process that made staff members publicly accountable to the partner and to each other. In several schools, the growth of teamwork and collaboration, along with the expansion of teachers' leadership, reinforced collegial accountability and control.

We stress that this lesson does not concern the effectiveness of any individual strategy per se, but underscores the importance of using multiple strategies to evoke several complementary mechanisms for change. Figure 30 shows the relationship between school development and the use of multiple strategies. Six of seven developing schools introduced some combination of incentives, controls, and opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills. Six of seven non-developing schools employed strategies that embodied only one type of change mechanism.

In developing schools, teachers knew they were accountable for the quality of teaching and learning in their classrooms, and principals knew they were accountable for the overall success of the school. The whole school community shared a set of goals and they expected each other to work hard to meet them. Overall, there was a commitment to making the school better.

Menchu, Mandela, and Sanchez are good examples of schools that employed multiple change mechanisms. At Mandela, Annenberg teachers learned how to collaborate better on instructional issues. The external partner provided professional development opportunities and regular structured meeting times. Non-participating teachers saw how Annenberg teachers were able to garner influence and resources through involvement in the school improvement planning process and they also began to collaborate, develop their own proposals, and participate in decision making. In terms of accountability, the principal and teachers were well aware of the standards their students and school would be held to on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS). This motivated them to work to improve instruction, although their efforts sometimes took them in different directions.

At Menchu, staff members also participated in professional development activities sponsored by their Annenberg external partner. School leaders learned how to work together and determined the best way to implement instructional and assessment activities. As a result, Menchu's commitment to its new literacy program and the importance of collaborative leadership groups increased. Teachers became more involved in their professional development as their own sense of accountability for the school's development grew. Annual self-study and school development planning meetings were occasions for accountability. During these meetings, teacher and administrator performance was publicly reviewed and disciplinary action for poor performance was considered.

Sanchez provides another example of development fostered by multiple change mechanisms. The principal had a vision of what he wanted to happen at the school and he did not hesitate to hold his teachers accountable for working to achieve it. If teachers were not meeting his standards, he reprimanded them. At the same time, he always praised success. Because he acknowledged both good and bad, the principal sent a strong message that everyone and everything mattered at Sanchez. This served as a strong motivator for some who might otherwise have been tempted to fade into the background. Professional development opportunities for teachers increased at Sanchez. Additional resources were provided to help teachers implement new classroom practices. Sanchez's in-house coordinator contributed by helping teachers implement the teaching strategies they learned in professional development and working with them to secure additional resources through grants and other funding opportunities.

Figure 30

Developing Schools Employ Multiple Change Strategies

	Developing Schools	Non-Developing Schools
Schools that employ multiple change strategies	Cassin Esquivel Mandela Menchu Pauling Sanchez	Walesa
Schools that employ single change strategies	Tutu	Borlaug MacBride Myrdal Sakharov Schweitzer Wiesel

Some of the non-developing schools in our field research sample relied on little more than the pressure to raise test scores and the fear of administrative sanctions to promote development. Without sufficient combinations of controls, incentives, and learning opportunities, these schools usually achieved little in the way of development. Although teachers in non-developing schools felt the need to take action or change what they were doing, they were not given the tools to do so. For example, teachers at Schweitzer, Borlaug, and Wiesel were very motivated to raise test scores, but their knowledge and skills were not developed to help them improve their instructional effectiveness.

Other non-developing schools in our field research sample only relied on teacher professional development activities to promote school development. Myrdal is perhaps the most extreme example here. At Myrdal, the principal and teachers were exposed to many new ideas through professional development, but there was little effort to increase their commitment to actual changes in practice or their accountability for implementing them. As a result, Myrdal failed to develop.

CPS Policy and School Development

CPS student retention and school probation policies were among the strongest motivators for change that we documented. In most cases, these policies and the emphasis they placed on student performance on the ITBS placed substantial pressure on principals to improve test scores or risk sanction from the central administration. These policies also influenced teacher practice. In all but two of our 14 field research schools, teachers and other staff members expressed concern about test scores. This concern was associated not only with teacher classroom practice, but also with most schools' efforts to develop.

Our field research shows that CPS policies have been very influential in focusing schools' attention on the need to change. They may play a positive role in school development by providing a sense of imperative and accountability. At the same time, however, they may also introduce tensions and dilemmas, particularly when they interact with other school development efforts. One source of tension and dilemma comes from the pressure to raise test scores quickly and the long-term work that is needed to achieve sustainable school development.

Such tensions and dilemmas were introduced in our story of Mandela in Section VII. They are illustrated in more detail in the case of Cassin, one of the most successfully developing schools in our field research sample. Cassin's story is not unique. We found similar tensions and dilemmas in other field research sites as principals, teachers, and external partners sought to balance the demands of CPS policies and their local school development efforts.

Rene Cassin Elementary School

Cassin Elementary School is located in the heart of one of the lowest income neighborhoods in Chicago. During the period of this study, neighborhood redevelopment put the community in flux and displaced large numbers of families. Cassin's student population was declining each year and a smaller staff struggled to help students overcome low academic achievement and personal challenges. Teachers and students were often featured in the media as "survivors" and "saints."

In 1997, Cassin and several neighboring schools had some of the lowest scores on the ITBS in the city. As a result, CPS focused a lot of attention on improving student achievement there. It monitored the school closely and offered an array of resources. Private organizations provided additional resources in the form of consulting and professional development opportunities for teachers.

That year, under the threat of probation for the school's low ITBS scores, Cassin's new principal, Mr. Floyd, took decisive action. He reviewed all programs and external partners operating at the school and eliminated those that served only a few children or did not relate to improving instruction. He retained those that provided professional development and instructional support for teachers. Floyd brought in new instructional materials for teachers, he counseled out teachers he felt were ineffective, and worked to establish a less confrontational climate between parents and teachers.

Our teacher interviews indicate that Floyd encouraged and supported teacher participation in a variety of professional development activities. He provided money and time for teachers to attend local and national conferences. He restructured the school day so that the whole staff could meet on Friday afternoons twice a month and he established two common planning periods each week for grade-level meetings. The external partners that continued to work at Cassin, of which the Annenberg external partner was one, occasionally led schoolwide workshops. They also worked with small groups of teachers on a number of specific instructional projects such as using technology to teach reading.

For the most part, teachers were very pleased with the support they received from Cassin's partners. Although the school did not formally coordinate the different partners' activities, all the partners worked toward a common goal. One teacher explained, "All of them are trying to help teachers and children to make the switch from rote learning to higher-order thinking. This is in line with school goals as well as State and Board standards." Most teachers with whom we spoke thought that the school and its development efforts were becoming much more focused around the goal of providing more intellectually rigorous teaching and learning.

Cassin also took steps to develop a more supportive student learning climate. The principal began to focus attention on students' strengths and accomplishments. He established a student council, essay contests, a student-of-the-month program, and monetary awards for high achieving eighth-grade graduates.

Students' talents and achievements were showcased in public celebrations. There was also evidence of a growing ethos of caring and personalism on the part of a significant number of teachers.

At the same time, with less than 20 percent of its students performing at or above national norms in reading and math, the central administration began to pressure Cassin to demonstrate immediate and measurable gains on the ITBS. Many teachers felt torn between wanting to provide their students with intellectually challenging and engaging lessons and preparing them for successful performance on the tests. Some felt so pressured to ensure better performance that they transferred it to their students, challenging the progress the school had made toward developing a more supportive student learning climate. One teacher gave the following example.

> I had to pull back last year from it [the emphasis on standardized tests] because I felt so driven by wanting them to do well. One time last year one of my kids said, "You know, you're really mean now." I knew she was telling the truth, because we had that kind of rapport. I had gotten that way because I was so afraid. . . . And I was just so intent on teaching test material that I finally said, "Forget it. I'm going to be me and do what I normally would do and go wherever" and I had 26 students and 25 of them graduated. . . . I was honest with them, you know, there's so much pressure on the school system, there's so much pressure on the teachers. And some people should be pressured to a certain degree because in any job you go into, everybody's not doing their job. But I internalized that pressure and externalized it by putting it on them. And it wasn't fair.

Pressure to raise test scores also began to affect teacher professional development and classroom instruction. As teachers described how they were trying to develop instruction toward "higher order tasks," "problem solving," "stimulating, hands on activities," "comprehension," and "more critical thinking," the underlying concern of everyone in the school was to "stay off of probation." A school administrator identified the effect in the following manner:

> All of the schools that are near probation, the big focus is we've got to get the students to learn test taking. So, that's the basic thing that I think teachers are working with more emphasis on preparing to teach students how to take a test.

Teachers routinely spoke about how the emphasis on testing was crowding out efforts to introduce more intellectually challenging instruction in their classrooms. With some frustration, a number of teachers noted how test preparation had become the school's "core curriculum." One teacher usually established pen-pal relationships between her students and students at a suburban school as part of her writing curriculum. "Usually I start with those kinds of activities in April," she said, "after we've got over our core curriculum." Another teacher said that she now had her students complete classroom assignments in a timed period to help them get accustomed to working within a given time frame on the tests. Each week she reviewed a skill, used a test preparation book, and time-tested students on the skill.

Teachers also began to use the test to motivate their students. In classroom observations, we saw repeated instances of teachers explaining to students the importance of learning specific skills and concepts because they would be included on "the tests." Teachers described how instruction in their classes had become driven by standardized tests saying, "It greatly influences what I teach." "I've been at this school for five years and the emphasis on standardized tests weighs more heavily than it ever has in my career." "Half the day is spent practicing for the test, but learning things too, but it's really geared to the test, the test, the test."

Floyd clearly felt pressure to achieve immediate gains on the ITBS. He also recognized that this immediacy challenged other development efforts underway at his school. As he explained, "Every researcher out there says five to seven years for change. We don't have five to seven years."

Floyd's statement captures a crucial dilemma. Many schools like Cassin are pressed to improve their test scores immediately or risk sanction and intervention by the central administration. At the same time, staff at these schools know that they need to achieve sustainable development in organizational capacity and classroom practices so that their students will continue to learn and develop after the urgency of the tests has abated. Teachers and principals are conflicted over where to focus their efforts and how to spend their time. They must decide whether to focus on those strategies, like test preparation, that may have the most immediate payoff or on making more fundamental changes in their schools, particularly in student learning climate and classroom instruction—improvements that in the long term may be more effective. These dilemmas have not been easily resolved by the teachers and principals in our study.

IX. Interpretive Summary

As we stated at the beginning of this report, our findings should be considered provisional. They are based on data collected from the first three years of Annenberg network and external partner funding. We will have much more to say about the development of Chicago Annenberg schools and how school development may be promoted in our final reports that will draw on five years of field research, survey, and student outcome data.

Still, we can say some things about the development of Chicago Annenberg schools from 1996 to 1999 and how school development may be promoted in general. First, our field research shows that although all the schools in our sample made concerted attempts to promote school development, their successes were modest—only half developed on one or more of the essential supports. The most prevalent areas of development were in school organizational capacity, notably school leadership and professional community. There were fewer instances of development in student learning climate or classroom instruction. Our analyses of citywide survey data are quite consistent with our field research.

Our field research and survey analyses indicate that Annenberg schools have developed in a number of small but potentially significant ways. They became stronger in several areas of school leadership and teacher professional community and some aspects of parent and community support and social trust. There is evidence student-teacher personalism and teachers' use of interactive teaching methods in reading have also increased. Most of the development in Annenberg schools is reflected in general patterns of development in schools across the city. In only a few areas did development in Annenberg schools exceed general patterns of development systemwide. Likewise, we found that student achievement and social-psychological outcomes in Annenberg schools mirrored student outcomes across the system—students' academic achievement as measured by the ITBS improved, but student engagement and classroom behavior levels declined.

In all, we did not find evidence of any clear, overarching "Annenberg effect" in Chicago from 1996 to 1999. This does not mean that Annenberg schools have failed to develop. As this report indicates, there are a number of success stories among Annenberg schools and Annenberg schools in general developed in several important ways. There is no doubt the Chicago Challenge played a role in that development. Our evidence indicates, however, that with the exception of a few areas, development across all Annenberg schools has not surpassed development systemwide. Different aspects of organizational capacity have become stronger in Annenberg schools. Teachers, administrators, and parents are generally working together in ways that are more conducive to student learning. At the same time, the development of classroom practice is mixed. Although teachers' personal support of students grew stronger, students indicated that their teachers do not push them to excel in their studies as much as they once did.

On the basis of evidence through 1999, we cannot draw any definitive conclusions about the overall contributions the Annenberg Challenge will make to school development and student learning in Chicago. We are not surprised by our findings through 1999. It takes a number of years to achieve whole school development and perhaps even longer for that development to translate into substantial, sustained gains in student outcomes. At the three-year mark of a six-year initiative, development efforts at some of our field research schools were just beginning to gain momentum. The schools that have achieved the most development have done so in areas of organizational capacity, most notably leadership and professional community. This may serve as a foundation for the future development of student learning climate and classroom instruction.

The Annenberg Challenge provides an opportunity to better understand school development processes. We have closely examined the development efforts of seven developing and seven non-developing schools and compared them to discern some initial lessons about how to promote school development: (1) the need for coherent focus on multiple essential supports; (2) the growth of strong distributive leadership; (3) the development of a complementary array of external resources that are aligned with the school's development efforts; and (4) the use of multiple, complementary change strategies that are appropriate to the type of development sought and the contexts in which it is sought. Using these lessons as a basis for promoting school development, we would ask a principal to reflect on the following questions when evaluating his/her school's efforts:

- Is your school attending to each of the essential supports? What are their relative strengths and weaknesses? How could you develop each support so that they trigger development in others?
- Do other members of your school community help lead school development initiatives? How might you foster leadership and agency for school development among others?
- What complementary array of human, social, material, financial, and political resources can you draw upon to promote school development? How can these resources be aligned in a coherent way to promote your particular school development agenda?
- What strategies could you use to spark and sustain teacher and staff engagement in development activities? Which strategies would motivate teachers and staff to examine and change their practices? Which ones would be most conducive to developing knowledge, skills, and practice? Which ones would create a sense of accountability? How would these strategies complement each other? Finally, how would these strategies interact with external efforts to promote change? How would you help teachers and staff manage the potential tensions and dilemmas that could result from these interactions in ways that would be most conducive for school development and student learning?

This report has set the stage for the Chicago Annenberg Research Project's final work. We will extend our analyses of Annenberg schools to 2001, the full span of the Chicago Challenge. We will explore further our lessons for promoting school development, focusing specifically on the improvement of classroom instruction. This final focus will bring together the Annenberg Research Project's work on processes of school development and on high quality instruction and student academic learning. We hope to shed new light on how to promote high quality instruction at both the school and classroom levels.

Appendix A

Indicators of High-Low States of Development of the Essential Supports for Student Learning

Low State	High State
School Leadership	
Principal is exclusive leader.	Leadership is broad based and includes principal, teachers, others.
Decision making is authoritative.	Decision making is democratic and shared.
Teachers do not meet regularly to plan improvements.	Teachers work to plan improvements regularly.
Leadership does not work to protect school from disruptive influences.	Leadership buffers school from disruptions.
Principal fails to articulate, communicate plans and goals of organization.	Principal articulates, communicates plans and goals of organization.
Leadership lacks focus or focus is not on instruction.	Leadership focuses on instruction.
Lack of accountability is the norm.	Principal and teachers take responsibility.
Principal fails to help teachers obtain professional development.	Principal promotes teacher development of teachers.
The school is poorly managed and chaotic.	The school is efficiently managed and runs on schedule.
Teacher Professional Community	
Teachers' vision and goals are ambiguous or not shared.	Teachers share clear a clear vision and goals.
Teachers are unable to articulate their goals and lack a common language.	Teachers use a common language to articulate their vision and goals.
Social groups are fragmented subcultures at the school.	There is normative coherence among social groups, subcultures at the school.
Teachers are isolated from each other and do not share reflective dialogue, inquiry, or joint work.	Teachers collaborate through reflective dialogue, inquiry, and joint work.
Teachers feel responsibility and accountability only to themselves.	Teachers feel that they have a shared responsibility and accountability.
Teachers have limited communication channels.	Teachers have expansive communication channels.
There are limited structures, time for collaboration.	There are sufficient structures, time for collaboration.
There are disruptive, counterproductive political and intellectual tensions.	There are productive political and intellectual tensions.

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Indicators of High-Low States of Development of the Essential Supports for Student Learning

High State	Low State
Parent and Community Involvement	
Students lack parent support for learning at home.	Parents strongly support student learning at home.
The principal fails to draw on community resources, institutions for schools.	The principal actively draws on community resources, institutions for schools.
Schools conduct little outreach to parents as resources.	Schools actively reach out to parents as resources.
Student-Centered Learning Climate	
School is disorderly with many disruptions.	School is orderly.
Students feel physical/psychological risk/danger.	Students feel physically and psychologically safe.
Impersonality and alienation characterize teacher/student relations.	Personalism and belonging characterize teacher/student relations.
Teachers hold low academic expectations of students.	Teachers hold high academic expectations of students.
Students find their peers give them little support for academic learning.	Students find high peer support for academic learning.
Quality Instruction	
Curriculum characterized by slow pacing and a great deal of review and repetition.	Curriculum is well-paced and coordinated across classrooms and grade levels.
Instruction is aimed only at mastery of basic skills.	Instruction is aimed at student mastery of challenging intellectual work and basic skills.
High quality instructional materials are not available or not used.	High quality instructional materials are used.
There are many disruptions to instruction	Instructional time is protected from interruption.
Social Trust	
Teacher and principal feel distrust, cynicism.	Teacher and principal feel trust, optimism.
Teacher and teacher feel distrust, cynicism.	Teacher and teacher feel trust, optimism.
Teacher and parent feel distrust, cynicism.	Teacher and parent feel trust, optimism.
Teacher and student feel distrust, cynicism.	Teacher and student feel trust, optimism.
School Instructional Program Coherence	
Instructional programs have different and sometimes divergent goals.	Instructional programs share common focus.
There are so many programs that teachers cannot keep track of them.	There is a small enough number of programs that teachers can keep track of them.

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Appendix B

Research Methods

The Chicago Annenberg Research Project combines longitudinal qualitative and quantitative data collection and analyses to assess the Chicago Annenberg Challenge and its role in school development between 1996 and 2001. The project documents (a) the development of Annenberg schools over time; (b) the impact of deliberate efforts to promote school development, with special emphasis on the efforts of the Challenge's external partners and networks; (c) the effects the community, school system, and other contextual factors have on school development; and (d) the effects school development has on student outcomes. This report draws on three strands of work. Two of these strands, field research and large-scale survey analysis, are described in detail in this appendix. The third, analyses of student achievement test score data, is described in other publications of the Consortium on Chicago School Research which are referenced in endnotes in the text of the report.

Longitudinal Field Research

Selection of Field Research Sites

In 1996 and 1997, more than 40 networks of schools and external partners were awarded multi-year implementation grants by the Chicago Annenberg Challenge. These networks included between 200 and 220 elementary, middle, and high schools, approximately 90 percent of which were elementary schools. From these networks and schools, we selected an initial sample of 11 networks and 23 field research schools. As we described in Section IV, sample selection began with the networks. We selected networks with diverse organizational foci, networks with both newly formed and well-established relationships with schools, and networks with different types of external partners (e.g., universities, community organizations, and cultural institutions). We then selected two or three schools as research sites from each of these networks. One to two schools were chosen because of their promise for working well with their external partners and succeeding in their efforts to develop. An additional school was chosen because of indications that it might struggle to succeed. Our intention was to create a purposive sample of schools that would allow us to understand reasons for more or less successful development. Our site selections were informed by Consortium survey data and assessments from the external partners of the networks we sampled.

We selected our sample of networks and schools in two stages. A first group was selected in the fall of 1996 from the networks and schools that received the first round of Annenberg funding. A second group was selected in the fall of 1997 from those receiving funding in the second round. In all, our sample included 18 elementary and middle schools and five high schools. By the end of the 1998-99 school year, the end point of analysis for this report, we collected three years of field research data from about half of the networks and schools in our sample; we collected two years of field research data in the other half.

In this report we focus attention on 14 elementary schools. We chose not to focus on high schools for two reasons. First, high schools represent only 10 percent of schools supported by the Challenge. Second, at this point in our study, our high school data are not as comprehensive as our elementary school data. We also did not include four of the 18 elementary/middle school sites in our analyses for this report. These schools did not participate fully in our field research and their data are not as complete as our other schools. We chose to focus on those schools with the most complete evidence available.

Although we did not intend to select a group of schools that was demographically representative of all Annenberg schools, the 14 schools that make up our field research sample are quite typical of schools across Annenberg and the system as a whole. In addition, the external partners working with our field research schools were generally representative of the different types of partners participating in the Challenge. Our field research schools also reflected the demographic characteristics of the system in general. Of the 14 elementary schools we studied for this report, six enrolled primarily African-American students, three enrolled primarily Latino students, three enrolled a combination of both African-American and Latino students (at least 85 percent of the total enrollment), and two enrolled a more mixed group that included between 15 and 30 percent white students.

On average, 32 percent of students in our field research schools scored at or above the national average in reading on the 1999 Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS), and 37 percent scored at this level in math. Our field research schools ranged from 17 to 60 percent of students at or above the national norms on the ITBS in reading and 16 to 78 percent of students at or above national norms in math. Average student enrollment for the schools was 900, ranging from 600 to 1,600 students.

Collection of Field Research Data

Field research took place during the 1996-97, 1997-98, and 1998-99 school years. The first, or baseline, data collection took place in the 1996-97 or 1997-98 school years, depending on the when schools were awarded their implementation grants. The second major data collection point was in 1998-99. The third and last major data collection point will take place in the 2000-01 school year. For the description that follows, we refer to the 1996-97 school year as Year 1, 1997-98 as Year 2, and 1998-99 as Year 3.

Field research data collection was designed to document (a) the state of schools' development on the essential supports at specific points in time; and (b) both Annenberg network activities and schools' own development activities that may have had no affiliation with Annenberg. As noted above, because of the two different stages of Annenberg grant making, our documentation of individual schools' development activity took place in either Years 1 and 3 or Years 2 and 3. About half of our schools fall in each category. Network and other school development activities were documented each year.

Our data come from several sources, including interviews with teachers, school administrators, Local School Council (LSC) members, external partners and Annenberg staff; classroom observations and observations of Annenberg and other school development activities; documents related to Annenberg activity and school development (e.g., School Improvement Plans and reports prepared for the Challenge); citywide teacher, principal, and student surveys administered by the Consortium; and student scores on the ITBS.

The data we draw upon for this report include a total of 311 interviews—186 teacher interviews, 49 principal, 67 teacher-leader, 18 LSC parent representative, 30 in-school Annenberg coordinators, and 60 external partner staff. We interviewed an average of 22 people at each school. We conducted 217 classroom observations of 117 different teachers in the third, sixth, and eighth grades. We also drew from school documents and school case reports written by Project researchers. Schools and staff members were promised anonymity in all reports of findings.

Field research was conducted during the academic year, with interview and observation data typically collected between October and March. Researchers wrote detailed case reports for each of their schools describing their state of development for both data collection years. Because of the two-stage sampling, case reports were written for about half of the schools for Years 1 and 3 and for the other half for Years 2 and 3. Vignettes describing each school's development activity were prepared for the years data collection took place.

Dozens of researchers from more than eight Chicago-area colleges and universities assisted with the field research. A team of one lead researcher and one research assistant was assigned to document the development of each school in the study. Two-thirds of the lead researchers were faculty members at local universities. Two-thirds of the research assistants were graduate students at local universities. The research assistants had the most continuous contact with the schools (up to ten hours per week during periods of data collection) and the lead researchers had the primary responsibility for writing the case reports. In many instances, lead researcher/

research assistant teams also had advisor/student relationships at their universities. The authors of this report were involved in each phase of the field research and also conducted interviews, observed classroom and development activity, and wrote case reports and vignettes.

In-depth field research continued at a dozen sites during the 1999-2000 academic year. The third and final round of full-scale data collection is scheduled for 2000-01.

Analysis of Field Research Data

In this and other Project reports, the Model of Essential Supports for Students Learning frames our definition of school development and guides data collection and analyses. The model delineates key areas of school organization and practice that are strongly related to student achievement.

Three of the authors of this report served as the primary field research data analysts. In their analyses they used the interviews, case studies, and documentary evidence gathered by field researchers for each school in the study. Indicators for high and low states of development on the Model of Essential Supports were used to code the data and determine the extent to which the field research schools developed over time (see Appendix A). In addition, they examined these data to identify emergent themes and patterns concerning the promotion and support of school development.

Analyses of field research evidence were complicated by the contextual nature of the data. It was sometimes difficult to make clear-cut determinations of the levels of development on the essential supports. Therefore, the analysts independently rated the 14 field research schools in terms of their strengths and weaknesses on each essential support and assessed how these levels changed over time. In general, a school was considered strong on an essential support if the evidence was indicative of our definition of that support's high state of development (see Appendix A). That is, there was evidence that the support was present and *reasonably well established* at the school. A school was considered weak on a particular support if evidence was indicative of our definition of a low state of development. Schools were considered moderate in their development if they fell somewhere in between; that is, the evidence indicated that the support's level fell between our definitions of high and low states or the support's qualities were not reasonably established. Authors discussed any disagreements in their independent ratings and, where necessary, engaged in additional data analysis to reach consensus.

Field researchers were asked to verify the ratings their particular schools received and to check the factual accuracy of information about their schools that is used in this report. Researchers were also asked to review the emergent themes and patterns of the promotion of school development and compare them to what was taking place in their school.

Survey Research

Collection of Survey Data

In the spring of 1997 and 1999, the Consortium surveyed CPS principals, teachers, and students in grades six through ten. Similar surveys were administered to teachers and students in spring 1994. Another round of surveys is scheduled to be administered in spring 2001.

In 1999, 353 elementary and 61 high schools participated. In all, 53,032 elementary and 20,304 high school students completed surveys, along with 7,915 elementary and 2,253 high school teachers. We conducted a series of analyses for possible non-response bias among teachers, students, and schools in terms of basic demographic characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity, percent low income students, etc.). Overall, we found that the survey sample is representative of principals, teachers and students across CPS. For this report, we analyzed teacher and student survey data from 349 elementary schools (out of 489) that had at least a 42 percent teacher response rate or a 50 percent student response rate.

Analytical Model for Survey Measure Trends

A separate analysis of each measure of each essential support was performed to determine whether there was a change in the measure between 1997 and 1999 in Chicago public elementary schools; Annenberg schools differed from demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools in 1999; and changes in the measure in Annenberg schools were different from changes in non-Annenberg schools between 1997 and 1999.

We used three-level hierarchical linear models to make these determinations, with each survey measure acting as the dependent variable in each separate model. Data were structured with a case for each respondent for each survey year (1994, 1997, and 1999) at levels one and two, and for each school at level three. The level one model was used to estimate each respondent's true score, given the standard error in that person's measure. Level two models estimated variation in the measure among respondents within the schools, while level three models estimated differences across schools. The models were constructed as follows.

Level-1 Model

$Y = \pi_1{}^*(WGT94) + \pi_2{}^*(WGT97) + \pi_3{}^*(WGT99) + e$

Level-2 Models

$\pi_1 = \beta_{10} + r_1$

$\pi_2 = \beta_{20} + r_2$

$\pi_3 = \beta_{30} + r_3$

Level-3 Models

$\beta_{10} = \gamma_{100} + \gamma_{101} \cdots \gamma_{1014}$ (Demographic Variables) + γ_{1015} (Annenberg dummy) + u_{10}

$\beta_{20} = \gamma_{200} + \gamma_{201} \cdots \gamma_{2014}$ (Demographic Variables) + γ_{2015} (Annenberg dummy) + u_{20}

$\beta_{30} = \gamma_{300} + \gamma_{301} \cdots \gamma_{3014}$ (Demographic Variables) + γ_{3015} (Annenberg dummy) + u_{30}

At level one, a measurement model was run for each person in each school to determine the most accurate estimation of that person's score on the measure, given the standard error of their measure (determined through Rasch analysis by their response pattern to the items in the question) and the average score for the school. The dependent variable (Y) was the person's score on the measure divided by the standard error on the measure. This was predicted with the inverse of the standard error on the measure, multiplied by dummy variables (scored one or zero) representing each of the survey years (WGT94, WGT97, WGT99). That is, if the survey response for a particular case was from the 1997 survey, the values of WGT94 and WGT99 for that case would be zero, while the value of WGT97 would be the inverse of the standard error of the measure for that person. The coefficient associated with the weight for the corresponding survey year (π_1, π_2, π_3) represents the best estimate of that person's true score on the measure in that year.

At level two, models were run within each school to determine the average score for the school on the measure for each year. Each of the coefficients from level one (π_1, π_2, π_3 – the best estimates of each person's true score on the measure) is modeled without any predictors. The intercepts (β_{10}, β_{20}, β_{30}) represent the average score on the measure for each school for each year.

Level three compared schools' average scores (β_{10}, β_{20}, β_{30}) controlling for a series of demographic variables and a variable representing Annenberg affiliation.[48] All of the predictor variables were centered on the grand mean so that the intercepts (γ_{100}, γ_{200}, γ_{300}) represented the average score for the measure across all schools for 1994, 1997, and 1999, respectively. A dummy variable representing Annenberg affiliation was also entered as a predictor to discern any difference in the average score among Annenberg schools compared to other schools, controlling for demographic variables.

The significance levels of the coefficients for the Annenberg dummy variable were used to determine whether Annenberg schools differed from non-Annenberg schools on the survey measure for each year. Contrast tests were performed to determine the answers to the other questions. To determine whether there was a significant level of change in the measure from 1997 to 1999 (Question 1), a contrast was performed between the intercepts for 1997 and 1999 (γ_{200} and γ_{300}). To determine whether Annenberg schools experienced a different rate of change in the measure than non-Annenberg schools, another contrast was performed between the coefficients associated with the Annenberg variable for 1997 and 1999 (γ_{2015} and γ_{3015}).

A 0.05 level of probability was used to define statistical significance.

The Productivity Index

To assess differences in student achievement between Annenberg and demographically comparable non-Annenberg schools, we used the Consortium's productivity index. The index estimates six-year trends in ITBS reading and math scores (1995 to 1999) using hierarchical linear modeling and taking into account four basic elements: (a) initial status, (b) base gain, (c) input trend, and (d) gain trend. The productivity index is the gain trend adjusted for the other three elements. Since gain trend is correlated with initial status, base gain, and especially with the input trend, adjusting the gain trend for these three factors takes into consideration schools' starting points and produces a more powerful indicator than the unadjusted gain trend.[49] Taking into account demographic characteristics, difference between Annenberg schools and non-Annenberg schools in three adjusted gain trends were compared to zero to determine statistical significance.

Calculation of the productivity index begins with identifying a stable group of students; that is, a specific group of students of the same age or grade level who received instruction for at least one full academic year in a school. The learning gain for each student in this group in each year is computed by subtracting the output status—the student's ITBS test score at the end of the academic year—from the input status—the student's ITBS test score from the preceding year.

Initial status refers to the average of these students' spring 1995 test scores. Base gain begins with the base period of the 1995-96 school year and is calculated as the difference in the initial status compared to the students' test scores in the spring of 1996. The base gain shows how much knowledge and skill students had gained at the end of a year of instruction. The input trend shows the variation in a student groups' input status from 1995 through 1998. The output trend shows the variation in their output status from 1996 through 1999. The resulting gain trend varies with initial and output status.

Appendix C

Measures Used in Survey Analyses

For its 1994, 1997, and 1999 systemwide surveys of students, teachers, and principals, the Consortium on Chicago School Research has developed measures to describe the state of the Model of Essential Supports for Student Learning. Key aspects of each support can be gauged across survey years by using Rasch measures. Rasch measures consist of 3 to 15 questionnaire items. The following definitions describe the concept captured by each measure used in this report, even though there are slight differences in the items used to construct the measures from year to year. The 1999 reliability coefficient for each measure is included. Appendix E lists detailed descriptions of the scale categories of each measure listed below. Additional technical detail on these measures is available from the Consortium on Chicago School Research.

School Leadership

Principal Inclusive Leadership indicates whether teachers view the principal as a facilitative and inclusive leader. Teachers were asked about the principal's leadership with respect to parent and community involvement, creating a sense of community in the school, and commitment to shared decision making. A high score indicates the principal supports shared decision making and broad involvement. (Reliability coefficient = 0.75)

Principal Instructional Leadership assesses teachers' perceptions of their principal as an instructional leader. Teachers were asked about their principal's leadership with respect to standards for teaching and learning, communicating a clear vision for the school, and tracking academic progress. In schools with a high score, teachers view their principal as very involved in classroom instruction, thereby able to create and sustain meaningful school improvement. (Reliability coefficient = 0.86)

Joint Problem Solving examines whether teachers sustain a public dialogue to solve problems. Teachers reported whether they used faculty meetings to discuss personal views and problem solving, and whether there is a good process for making decisions. Schools with a high score have good communication among teachers who work together to solve problems. (Reliability coefficient = 0.82)

Teacher Influence on School Level Decisions measures the extent of teachers' involvement in school decision making. Teachers registered how much influence they have over such matters as selecting instructional materials, setting school policy, planning in-service programs, spending discretionary funds, and hiring professional staff. A high score indicates influence over classroom matters and major schoolwide decisions, such as budgets and hiring new staff, implying a broad sense of "ownership" for school decisions. (Reliability coefficient = 0.85)

Teacher Professional Community

Reflective Dialogue reveals how much teachers talk with one another about instruction and student learning. Teachers reported how often they discuss curriculum and instruction as well as school goals, and how best to help students learn and how to manage their behavior. A high score indicates that teachers are engaged in frequent conversations with each other about instruction and student learning, helping to build common beliefs about the conditions of good schooling. (Reliability coefficient = 0.78)

Focus on Student Learning gauges the extent to which teachers feel their school's goals and actions are focused on student learning. Teachers reported whether the school has well-defined learning expectations for all students, sets high standards for academic performance, and always focuses on what is best for student learning.

Schools that share a consensus about their goals and actions for improving student learning and advancing education for all students score high on this measure. Advancing education for all students is the central concern here. (Reliability coefficient = 0.81)

Orientation Toward Innovation indicates whether teachers are continually learning and seeking new ideas, have a "can do" attitude, and are encouraged to change. A high score means a strong orientation to improve among the faculty, indicating their willingness to try new things for the sake of their students and to be part of an active learning organization themselves. (Reliability coefficient = 0.89)

Peer Collaboration reflects the extent of a cooperative work ethic among staff. Teachers were asked about the quality of relations among the faculty, whether school staff coordinate teaching and learning across grades, and whether they shared efforts to design new instructional programs. Schools where teachers move beyond just cordial relations to actively working together score high on this scale and can develop deeper understandings of students, each other, and their profession. (Reliability coefficient = 0.75)

Collective Responsibility focuses on the extent of a shared commitment among the faculty to improve the school so that all students learn. Teachers were asked how many colleagues feel responsible for students' academic and social development, set high standards of professional practice, and take responsibility for school improvement. A high score means a strong sense of shared responsibility among the faculty who help each other reach high standards. (Reliability coefficient = 0.92)

School Commitment gauges the extent to which teachers feel loyal and committed to this school. Teachers reported whether they look forward to working in the school, would rather work somewhere else, and would recommend the school to other parents. A high score means teachers are deeply committed to their school. (Reliability coefficient = 0.79)

Parent and Community Support

Parent Support for Student Learning gauges student views of their parents' support for their schoolwork. Students were asked about how often their parents (or other adults) encourage them to work hard, do their homework, and take responsibility. A high score means strong parental support. (Reliability coefficient = 0.61)

Teacher Use of Community Resources measures the extent to which teachers use the local community as a resource in their teaching and in their efforts to understand their students better. Teachers reported how often they brought in guest speakers from the community, consulted with community members to understand their students better, and used examples from the community in their teaching. A high score means greater use of these community resources and more effort on the part of teachers to understand their students' surroundings. (Reliability coefficient = 0.68)

Parent Involvement in School measures parent participation and support for the school. Teachers reported how often parents picked up report cards, attended parent-teacher conferences, attended school events, volunteered to help in the classroom, or raised funds for the school. Schools with a high score have many parents who actively aid the school. (Reliability coefficient = 0.82)

Ties to Community examines the extent to which teachers interact with the school's community. Teachers reported, for example, how often they visited the homes of students, attended religious or recreational events where students attend, or shopped in the community. A high score means teachers are more involved with the school's community and therefore more able to play an extended role in students' lives. (Reliability coefficient = 0.66)

Teacher Outreach to Parents measures the school's efforts to work with parents to develop common goals and good communication, and to strengthen student learning. Teachers reported their efforts to understand parents' problems, invite them to visit the classrooms, seek their input, and generally build trusting relationships. A high score means teachers reach out to parents more often. (Reliability coefficient = 0.85)

Knowledge of Students' Culture measures teachers' efforts to better understand their students. Teachers were asked how many teachers in their school talk with students about their lives at home and their cultures, and how many teachers are knowledgeable about issues and concerns in the school's community. Schools with a high score have many teachers who are committed to learning about their students and their community. (Reliability coefficient = 0.70)

Student-Centered Learning Climate

Press Toward Academic Achievement gauges whether students feel their teachers challenge them to reach high levels of academic performance. This is a key element in a school climate focused on student learning. Students were asked if their teachers press them to do well in school, expect them to complete their homework, and to work hard. The scale also includes questions about teachers praising students' work and willingness to give extra help. In schools that score high, most teachers press all students toward academic achievement. (Reliability coefficient = 0.66)

Classroom Personalism gauges whether students perceive that their classroom teachers give them individual attention and show personal concern for them. Students were asked if their teachers know and care about them, notice if they are having trouble in class, and are willing to help with academic and personal problems. A high score here means students experience strong personal support from school staff. Academic achievement is more likely in classrooms that combine personalism with a strong press toward academic work. (Reliability coefficient = 0.72)

Safety reflects the students' sense of personal safety inside and outside the school, and traveling to and from school. A high score means they feel very safe in all these areas. (Reliability coefficient = 0.62)

Peer Support for Academic Work reveals whether prevailing norms among students support academic work. Students reported whether their friends try hard to get good grades, do their homework regularly, pay attention in class, and follow school rules. In schools with high scores, students experience support from peers for academic work. As a result, student learning is more likely. (Reliability coefficient = 0.82)

Community Resources to Support Student Learning (Human and Social Resources in the Community) assesses whether students trust and rely on neighbors and community members and whether they know and care about them and each other. Students were asked, for example, if adults make sure that children in the neighborhood are safe, if they know who the local children are, and if people in the neighborhood can be trusted. In schools with a high score, many students have community resources that support them. (Reliability coefficient = 0.75)

Quality Instruction

Interactive Instruction in Language Arts measures the amount of time teachers spend on having students discuss ideas for most of the class, draw inferences, integrate reading and writing, work on the elements of writing, relate learning to personal experiences, and synthesize ideas and produce original products. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more classroom time on these activities. (Reliability coefficient = 0.87)

Interactive Instruction in Math measure the amount of time teachers spend on having students develop scientific writing skills, discuss ideas for most of the class, and develop reasoning and analysis skills. Students also study topics in depth and are required to synthesize information to produce a piece of original work. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more classroom time on these activities. (Reliability coefficient = 0.85)

Didactic Instruction in Language Arts measures the amount of time teachers spend on vocabulary, note taking, and preparing for standardized tests. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more time on these activities. They typically think it is important to ask students to memorize facts, and they spend more than half the class lecturing. (Reliability coefficient = 0.78)

Didactic Instruction in Math measures the amount of time teachers spend on having students practice problems, show their work in solving problems, and prepare for standardized tests. A high score indicates teachers spend relatively more time on these activities. They typically think it is important to ask students to memorize facts, and they spend more than half the class lecturing. (Reliability coefficient = 0.67)

Social Trust

Student-Teacher Trust focuses on the quality of relations between students and teachers. Students were asked whether they believe teachers can be trusted, care about them, keep their promises, listen to students' ideas, and if they feel safe and comfortable with their teachers. In high-scoring schools there is a high level of care and communication between students and teachers. (Reliability coefficient = 0.78)

Teacher-Parent Trust measures the extent to which parents and teachers support each other to improve student learning and feel mutual respect. Teachers were asked if they feel they are partners with parents in educating children, if they receive good parental support, if the staff works hard to build trust with parents, and if teachers respect parents. A high score indicates very supportive relations among teachers and parents. (Reliability coefficient = 0.58)

Teacher-Principal Trust measures the extent to which teachers feel their principal respects and supports them. Teachers were asked if their principal looks out for the welfare of teachers and has confidence in their expertise, and if they respect the principal as an educator. A high score means that teachers and the principal share a high level of mutual trust and respect. (Reliability coefficient = 0.89)

Teacher-Teacher Trust measures the extent to which teachers in a school have open communication with and respect for each other. We asked, for example, whether teachers in the school respect other teachers who lead school improvement efforts, and whether teachers trust and respect each other. Schools where teachers trust and respect each other score high on this measure. (Reliability coefficient = 0.82)

School Instructional Program Coherence

School Instructional Program Coherence assesses the degree to which teachers feel the programs at their school are coordinated with each other and with the school's mission. Teachers were asked, for example, if the materials in their schools are consistent both within and across grades, if there is sustained attention to quality program implementation, and if changes at the school have helped promote the school's goals for student learning. A high score on this measure means a school's programs are coordinated and consistent with the school's goals for student learning, enabling the development of a high quality core program. (Reliability coefficient = 0.75)

Student Outcomes

Student Classroom Behavior asks if classmates treat each other with respect, work together well, and help each other learn, and if other students disrupt class, like to put others down, and don't care about each other. In high scoring schools, positive behaviors are prevalent, and the problem behaviors are less prevalent. (Reliability coefficient = 0.61)

Student Academic Engagement examines student interest and engagement in learning. Students responded to items regarding whether they are interested in their class and the topics studied. They also reported whether they work hard to do their best. A high score means greater individual engagement in learning. (Reliability coefficient = 0.66)

Student Social Competence examines whether students feel they can help people end arguments; listen carefully to what others say; and share, help, and work well with other students. A high score means that students feel competent to deal with a wide range of social situations. (Reliability coefficient = 0.69)

Student Self-Efficacy examines students' confidence in their academic ability. Students were asked if they believed they could master skills, do even the hardest work if they try, and do a good job with sufficient time. A high score means students feel they can achieve high standards. When a strong sense of efficacy is accompanied by sustained student effort, better academic achievement is likely. (Reliability coefficient = 0.58)

Appendix D

Presence and Magnitude of Difference on Survey Measures

The table addresses the following: (1) Did CPS elementary schools change between 1997 and 1999? and (2) Were Annenberg elementary schools any different than comparable non-Annenberg schools in 1999? Column 1 indicates whether there were any statistically significant changes across Chicago elementary schools in each of the essential supports between 1997 and 1999. Where such changes occurred, the direction and effect sizes are noted. Column 2 indicates whether there were statistically significant differences between Annenberg elementary schools and demographically comparable non-Annenberg elementary schools in 1999 on each of the essential supports. Where such differences exist, the direction and effect sizes are shown.

Magnitude of Differences

Changes and differences are reported in effect size. Effect sizes in Column 1 are calculated by subtracting the 1997 mean of the measure from the 1999 mean and then dividing the difference by the standard deviation of the 1997 mean. Effect sizes in Column 2 are the differences between the 1999 Annenberg school mean minus the non-Annenberg school mean divided by the 1999 standard deviation for the measure. Magnitude of differences in effect sizes can range from +3 to –3.

Presence of Differences

Effect size magnitudes are only reported if differences in means were statistically significant at or below a 0.05 level of probability, that there was less than a 5 percent chance that the difference was greater than it would have been by random chance alone.

Measures	(1) Did CPS elementary schools change between 1997 and 1999? If yes, by how much?	(2) In 1999, were Annenberg elementary schools any different than comparable non-Annenberg elementary schools? If yes, by how much?
School Leadership		
Inclusive leadership	0.14	No difference
Instructional leadership	0.20	No difference
Joint problem solving	0.13	No difference
Teacher influence	0.21	0.28
Professional Community		
Peer collaboration	No change	No difference
Collective responsibility	No change	No difference
Reflective dialogue	No change	0.44**
Focus on student learning	0.21	No difference
Innovation	0.13	No difference
School commitment	No change	No difference
Parent and Community Involvement		
Parent involvement in school	0.08	No difference
Parent support for student learning	0.23	No difference
Use of community resources	0.53	0.42
Ties to community	No change	No difference
Teachers' outreach to parents	No change	No difference
Knowledge of students' culture	No change	No difference
Student-Centered Learning Climate		
Press toward academic achievement	-0.52	No difference
Classroom personalism	1.27	No difference
Safety	No change	No difference
Peer support for academic work	-0.63	No difference
Human and social resources in the community	0.60	No difference

** Level of significance for reflective dialogue is slightly greater than 0.05. It is significant at the 0.07 level in 1999 and at the 0.06 level in 1997.

Measures	(1) Did CPS elementary schools change between 1997 and 1999? If yes, by how much?	(2) In 1999, were Annenberg elementary schools any different than comparable non-Annenberg elementary schools? If yes, by how much?
Quality Instruction		
Interactive instruction in language arts	0.59	No difference
Interactive instruction in mathematics	-0.65	No difference
Didactic language arts	No change	No difference
Didactic math	No change	No difference
Social Trust		
Teacher-Principal trust	No change	No difference
Teacher-Teacher trust	No change	No difference
Teacher-Parent trust	0.26	No difference
Teacher-Student trust	0.22	No difference
Program Coherence		
Program coherence	No change	-0.28
Student Outcomes		
Classroom behavior	-0.27	No difference
Academic engagement	-0.80	No difference
Social competence	No change	No difference
Self-efficacy	No change	No difference

Appendix E

Scale Categories of Measures Used in Survey Analysis

This appendix contains definitions of scale categories of measures used in survey analyses. Each set of definitions is keyed to the figure in the body of the report in which the measure appears.

Principal Inclusive Leadership at Annenberg Schools
Figure 5

Category	Teachers in this school:
1 **Negative**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** that the principal promotes parent and community involvement and **strongly disagree** that the principal works to create a sense of community in the school and is committed to shared decision making.
2 **Mixed**	**agree** that the principal promotes parent and community involvement, but **disagree** that the principal works to create a sense of community in the school or is committed to shared decision making.
3 **Positive**	**agree** or **strongly agree** that the principal promotes parent and community involvement and **agree** that the principal works to create a sense of community in the school and is committed to shared decision making.
4 **Very positive**	**strongly agree** with all items on this scale.

Principal Instructional Leadership in Annenberg Schools
Figure 6

Category	In this school:
1 **Weak**	teachers **disagree** or **strongly disagree** with all items on the scale.
2 **Mixed**	some teachers **agree** and some **disagree** that their principal makes teaching expectations clear, sets high standards for both teaching and student learning, and communicates a clear vision for the school; they **disagree** that their principal presses them to implement what they learn in professional development activities, understands how students learn, and tracks student academic progress.
3 **Strong**	teachers **agree** with all items on the scale.
4 **Very strong**	teachers **strongly agree** that their principal makes teaching expectations clear, sets high standards for both teaching and student learning, and communicates a clear vision for the school; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that their principal presses teachers to implement what they learn in professional development activities, understands how students learn, and tracks student academic progress.

Joint Problem Solving in Annenberg Schools
Figure 7

Category	In this school:
1 **Very weak**	teachers **disagree** or **strongly disagree** with all items on the scale.
2 **Mixed**	some teachers **agree** and some **disagree** that teachers sweep conflict under the rug; they **agree** that teachers do a good job talking through views/opinions; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that teachers in their school express personal views at meetings, have a good process for solving problems, and use faculty meetings for problem solving.
3 **Strong**	teachers **agree** with all items on the scale.
4 **Very strong**	teachers **strongly agree** that teachers do not sweep conflict under the rug and do a good job talking through views and opinions; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that teachers in their school express personal views at meetings, have a good process for solving problems, and use faculty meetings for problem solving.

Teacher Influence on School Level Decision Making in Annenberg Schools
Figure 8

Category	Teachers reported that in this school:
1 **Minimal**	they have **none** or **a little** influence in determining instructional materials for their class and establishing curriculum programs; teachers **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that they feel comfortable voicing their concerns or are involved with making important decisions at the school; and teachers have **no influence** in determining in-services or teaching assignments, using discretionary funds, determining the school schedule, or hiring a new principal and personnel.
2 **Limited**	they have **a little** or **some** influence in determining instructional materials for their class; they **disagree** that they feel comfortable voicing their concerns or are involved in making important decisions at the school; they have **a little** influence over establishing curriculum programs and determining in-services; they have **none** or **a little** influence over teaching assignments, using discretionary funds, and hiring a new principal and personnel.
3 **Moderate**	they have **some** or **a great deal** of influence in determining instructional materials for their class; they **agree** that they are comfortable voicing their concerns and are involved in making important decisions at the school; they have **some** influence over establishing curriculum programs and setting standards for student behavior; and they have **a little** or **some** influence over teaching assignments, using discretionary funds, and hiring a new principal and personnel.
4 **Extensive**	have a **great deal** of influence in determining instructional material for their classes and setting standards for student behavior; teachers **strongly agree** that they feel comfortable voicing their concerns and are involved in making important decisions at the school; teachers have **some** or a **great deal** of influence in determining in-services, using discretionary funds, determining the school schedule, and hiring a new principal and personnel.

Focus on Student Learning in Annenberg Schools
Figure 9

Category	Teachers in this school:
1 **No focus**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** with all items on the scale.
2 **Not very focused**	**agree** that the school maximizes instruction time; some **agree** and some **disagree** that the school sets high standards for academic performance, has well-defined learning expectations for students, and makes decisions based on what is best for students; they **disagree** that the school works at developing students' social skills.
3 **Focused**	**agree** with all items on the scale.
4 **Very focused**	**strongly agree** that the school day is organized to maximize instruction time; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that the school sets high standards for academic performance, has well-defined learning expectations for students, makes decisions based on what is best for students, and works at developing students' social skills.

Innovation in Annenberg Schools
Figure 10

Category	Teachers reported that in this school:
1 **Minimal**	**none** or **some** of the teachers really try to improve their teaching; they **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that teachers are continually learning, are encouraged to grow, and have a "can do" attitude; and **none** or **some** of the teachers try new ideas and take risks.
2 **Limited**	**about half** of the teachers really try to improve their learning; some teachers **agree** and others **disagree** that teachers at their school are continually learning, are encouraged to grow, and have a "can do" attitude; only **some** of the teachers in their school try new ideas and take risks.
3 **Moderate**	**about half** or **most** of the teachers really try to improve their teaching; they **agree** that teachers are continually learning, are encouraged to grow, and have a "can do" attitude; and **about half** of the teachers try new ideas and take risks.
4 **Extensive**	**most** or **nearly all** of the teachers really try to improve their teaching; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that teachers are continually learning, are encouraged to grow, and have a "can do" attitude; and **most** or **nearly all** of the teachers try new ideas and take risks.

Reflective Dialogue in Annenberg Schools
Figure 11

Category	Teachers in this school:
1 **Almost none**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** that they talk informally about instruction, share and discuss student work with other teachers, and discuss assumptions about student learning; they have conversations about how students learn best, managing student behavior, developing new curriculum, and school goals **less than once a month**.
2 **Occasional**	**agree** that they talk informally about instruction and share and discuss student work with other teachers, some **agree** and some **disagree** that they discuss assumptions about student learning; they have conversations about how students learn best and managing student behavior **2 to 3 times a month**, and have conversations about developing new curriculum and school goals **less than 2 to 3 times a month**.
3 **Regular**	**agree** that they talk informally about instruction, share and discuss student work with other teachers, and discuss assumptions about student learning; they also have conversations with other teachers about how students learn best and managing student behavior **more than once or twice a month**; and have conversations about developing new curriculum and school goals from **once to three times a month**.
4 **Frequently**	**strongly agree** that they talk informally about instruction, share and discuss student work with other teachers, and discuss assumptions about student learning; they also have conversations with other teachers about how students learn best, managing student behavior, developing new curriculum, and school goals **almost daily**.

Parent Support for Student Learning in Annenberg Schools
Figure 12

Category	Students reported:
1 **Minimal**	their parents encourage them to work hard and take responsibility for things they had done **less than once in awhile**; they discussed grades with their parents **less than 1 to 2 times** last year; their parents **never** praise their school work, check to see if homework was done or help with it, or discussed homework, going to college, things they had studied, school activities, or selecting courses.
2 **Moderate**	their parents encourage them to work hard and ask them why they were not doing their homework **once in awhile** to **most of the time**; they check to see if it was done or helped with it **once in awhile;** they discussed grades with their parents **1 to 5 times** last year, but they discussed going to college, things they had studied, and school activities with their parents **1 to 2 times**, and selecting courses **less than once or twice**.
3 **Strong**	their parents encourage them to work hard **all the time**; ask them about why they were not doing their homework and praise them for doing well in school **most** or **all of the time**; check to see if their homework was done or help with it **most of the time**, they discussed grades, going to college, things they have studied in school, and school activities with their parents **3 to 5 times** last year, and selecting courses **1 to 5 times**.
4 **Very strong**	their parents encourage them to work hard and take responsibility for things they have done, praise them for doing well in school, check to see if their homework was done, and help them with their homework **all the time**; they discussed their grades, homework, going to college, things they studied, and school activities with their parents **more than 5 times**, and selecting courses **more than 3 times** last year.

Community Support for Student Learning in Annenberg Schools
Figure 13

Category	In this school, students:
1 **None**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** that people in the neighborhood care about what happens there; they **strongly disagree** with the reminaing items on the scale.
2 **Scarce**	**agree** and others **disagree** that people in the neighborhood care about what happens there; they **disagree** that the parks are safe for kids to play in during the day and there are adults in the neighborhood who know the local kids and whom the kids can look up to; they **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that adults make sure neighborhood kids are safe, people in the neighborhood can be trusted, and neighbors deal with any problems in the neighborhood.
3 **Some**	**agree** or **strongly agree** that people in the neighborhood care about what happens there; they **agree** that the parks are safe for kids to play in during the day and there are adults in the neighborhood who know the local kids and whom the kids can look up to; some **agree** and others **disagree** that adults make sure neighborhood kids are safe, people in the neighborhood can be trusted, and the neighbors deal with any problems in the neighborhood.
4 **Many**	**strongly agree** that people in the neighborhood care about what happens there, the parks are safe for kids to play in during the day, and there are adults in the neighborhood who know the local kids and whom the kids can look up to; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that adults make sure neighborhood kids are safe, people in the neighborhood can be trusted, and the neighbors deal with any problems in the neighborhood.

Teacher Use of Community Resources in Annenberg Schools
Figure 14

Category	Teachers in this school reported that in the last school year:
1 **No use**	they used people/events from the community as an example and told students about community agencies **once or twice**, or **never**; **never** consulted with community members to understand students better, collected materials from the business community for class, or took students on a field trip or brought in guest speakers from the community.
2 **Occasional**	they used people/events from the community as an example and told students about community agencies **once to 4 times**; consulted with community members to better understand students and collected materials from community businesses for class **once or twice**; took students on a field trip or brought in guest speakers from the school community **once or twice**, or **never**.
3 **Frequent**	they used people/events from the community as an example and told students about community agencies **5 to 9 times**; consulted with community members to better understand students and collected materials from community businesses for class **3 to 4 times**; took students on a field trip or brought in guest speakers from the school's community **once or twice**.
4 **Extensive**	they used people/events from the community as an example and told students about community agencies **more than 10 times**; consulted with community members to better understand students and collected materials from community businesses for class **more than 5 times**; took students on a field trip or brought in guest speakers from the school's community **more than 3 or 4 times**.

Press Toward Academic Achievement in Annenberg Schools
Figure 15

Category	Students in this school:
1 **None**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** that their teacher thinks it is important they do well, does not think they're dumb if they ask about things they don't understand, expects them to complete their homework and do their best, does not put them down, and cares if they get bad grades or don't do their work; they **strongly disagree** that their teacher praises them when they work hard or encourages them to do extra work when they don't understand something.
2 **Limited**	**agree** and others **disagree** that their teacher thinks it is important they do well, does not think they're dumb if they ask about things they don't understand, expects them to complete their homework, and do their best, does not put them down, and cares if they get bad grades or don't do their work; they **disagree** that their teacher praises them when they work hard or encourages them to do extra work they don't understand something.
3 **Moderate**	**agree** or **strongly agree** that their teacher thinks it is important they do well, does not think they're dumb if they ask about things they don't understand, expects them to complete their homework and do their best, does not put them down, cares if they get bad grades or don't do their work, and praises them when they work hard; they **agree** that their teacher encourages them to do extra work when they don't understand something.
4 **High**	**strongly agree** that their teacher thinks it is important they do well, does not think they're dumb if they ask about things they dont' understand, expects them to complete their homework and do their best, does not put them down, cares if they get bad grades or don't do their work, praises them when they work hard, and encourages them to do extra work when they don't understand something.

Peer Support for Acacemic Work in Annenberg Schools
Figure 16

Category	Students in this school reported that:
1 **Minimal**	**few** or **none** of the students in their class think getting good grades is cool, try to get good grades, attend all their classes, pay attention in class, and think doing homework is important.
2 **Limited**	between **about half** and **most** of the students in their class think getting good grades is cool; most try hard to get good grades and attend all their classes; **a few** or **most** think doing homework is important and pay attention in class.
3 **Moderate**	**most** of the students in their class try hard to get good grades and attend all their classes, and **about half** or **most** pay attention in class and think doing homework is important.
4 **Strong**	**all** of the students in their class think getting good grades is cool, try hard to get good grades, and attend all of their classes; **most** or **all** of the students in their class pay attention in class and think doing homework is important.

Classroom Personalism in Annenberg Schools
Figure 17

Category	Students in this school reported that:
1 **None**	students **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that their teacher believes they can do well in school, is willing to give extra help, notices if they are having trouble learning something, helps them catch up if they are behind, and really listens to what they have to say; they **strongly disagree** that the teacher relates the subject matter to their personal interests.
2 **Minimal**	some **agree** and others **disagree** that their teacher believes they can do well in school; all **disagree** that their teacher is willing to give extra help, notices if they are having trouble learning something, helps them catch up if they are behind, and really listens to what they have to say; they **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that their teacher relates the subject matter to their personal interests.
3 **Considerable**	students **agree** or **strongly agree** that their teacher believes they can do well in school; they **agree** that their teacher is willing to give extra help, notices if they are having trouble learning something, helps them catch up if they are behind, and really listens to what they have to say; however, some **agree** and others **disagree** that their teacher relates the subject matter to their personal interests.
4 **Strong**	students **strongly agree** that their teacher believes they can do well in school, is willing to give extra help, notices if they are having trouble learning something, and helps them catch up if they are behind; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that their teacher listens to what they say and relates the subject matter to their personal interests.

Student-Teacher Trust in Annenberg Schools
Figure 20

Category	In this school:
1 **No trust**	students **disagree** that their teacher has a good reason for telling them not to do something, cares about them and what they think, does not get mad when they make mistakes, will always listen to students' ideas, always tries to be fair, makes them feel safe and comfortable, and can be trusted; they **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that their teacher does not punish students without knowing what happened and keeps his or her promises.
2 **Minimal trust**	some students **agree** and others **disagree** that their teacher has a good reason for telling them not to do something, and cares about what they think; they **disagree** that their teacher really cares about them, gets mad when they make mistakes, will always listen to students' ideas, always tries to be fair, makes them feel safe and comfortable, can be trusted, does not punish students without knowing what happened, and keeps his or her promises.
3 **Strong trust**	students **agree** that their teacher has a good reason for telling them not to do something, cares about them and what they think, does not get mad when they make a mistake, will always listen to their ideas, always tries to be fair, makes them feel safe and comfortable, and can be trusted; some **agree** and others **disagree** that their teacher does not punish students without knowing what happened and keeps his or her promises.
4 **Very strong trust**	students **strongly agree** that their teachers has a good reason for telling them not to do something, cares about them and what they think, does not get mad when they make a mistake, will always listen to their ideas, always tries to be fair, makes them feel safe and comfortable, and can be trusted; **agree** or **strongly agree** that their teacher does not punish students without knowing what happened and keeps his or her promises.

Teacher-Parent Trust in Annenberg Schools
Figure 21

Category	Teachers in this school:
1 **No trust**	respect and feel respected by parents **not at all** or **a little**; they **disagree** or **strongly disagree** that talking with parents helps them understand students better, there is no conflict between parents and teachers, and teachers and parents are partners in educating children; **none** of the parents support their teaching efforts or do their best to help their children learn, and **none** of the teachers care about the community or feel good about parental support.
2 **Minimal trust**	respect and feel respected by parents **to some extent**; they **agree** that talking with parents helps them understand students better, but some **agree** and some **disagree** that there is no conflict between parents and teachers, and that teachers and parents are partners in educating children; **none** to **some** of the parents support their teaching efforts or do their best to help their children learn, and **none** to **some** of the teachers feel good about parental support.
3 **Strong trust**	respect and feel respected by parents **to a great extent**; they **agree** or **strongly agree** that talking with parents helps them understand their students better, and **agree** that there is no conflict between parents and teachers, and teachers and parents are partners in educating children; **about half of parents** support their teaching efforts and do their best to help their children learn, and **about half of teachers** care about the community and feel good about parental support.
4 **Very strong trust**	respect and feel respected by parents **to a great extent**; they **strongly agree** that talking with parents helps them understand students better, there is no conflict between parents and teachers, and teachers and parents are partners in educating children; **most** or **nearly all parents** support their teaching efforts and help their children learn, and **most** or **nearly all** teachers care about the community and feel good about parental support.

School Instructional Program Coherence in Annenberg Schools
Figure 22

Category	Teachers in this school:
1 **None**	believe the focus of the instructional programs has changed **for the worse**; they **strongly disagree** with all other items on the scale.
2 **Little**	believe that there has been **no change** in the focus of instructional programs in their school; some **agree** and some **disagree** that changes in the school promote the school's goal for student learning; they **disagree** with the remaining items on the scale.
3 **Moderate**	**agree** or with the items on this scale and believe that the focus of instructional programs has changed **for the better**.
4 **Strong**	**strongly agree** with the items on this scale and believe that the focus of instructional programs has changed **for the better**.

Student Academic Engagement in Annenberg Schools
Figure 24

Category	In this school, students:
1 **None**	**disagree** or **strongly disagree** that they try hard to do their best and find their math topics interesting; they **strongly disagree** that they are not often bored in class, they are so interested in the work they don't want to stop, and they do not often count the minutes until class ends.
2 **Limited**	**agree** that they try hard to do their best; some **agree** and others **disagree** that their math topics are interesting; however, they **disagree** that they are not often bored in class, they are so interested in the work they don't want to stop, and they do not often count the minutes until class ends.
3 **Moderate**	**agree** or **strongly agree** that they work hard to do their best; they **agree** with the other items.
4 **High**	**strongly agree** with all items on this scale.

Student Classroom Behavior in Annenberg Schools
Figure 25

Category	In this school, students:
1 **Very negative**	**strongly disagree** with all items on the scale.
2 **Negative**	**disagree** with all items on the scale, except that some **strongly disagree** that students do not disrupt class.
3 **Moderately positive**	**agree** or **strongly agree** that students who do well are not made fun of, and students work together to solve problems, help each other learn, get along well, care about each other, and treat each other with respect; they **agree** that students do not look out just for themselves, and do not like to put others down; some **agree** and some **disagree** that students do not disrupt class.
4 **Very positive**	**strongly agree** with all items on the scale.

Endnotes

[1] Hallert, Chapman, and Ayers (1995). See also Sconzert, Shipps, and Smylie (1998).

[2] Smylie et al. (1998).

[3] The Challenge made its first grants to networks and external partners in December 1995. Winter and spring of 1996 were used primarily for planning and development. For most funded networks, implementation of development activities did not begin in earnest until the fall of the 1996-97 school year.

[4] Shipps, Sconzert, and Swyers (1999b).

[5] For more information about Chicago Annenberg external partners and their work see Newmann and Sconzert (2000).

[6] These developments are examined in more detail in other reports of the Chicago Annenberg Research Project. See Smylie et al. (1998); Shipps, Sconzert, and Swyers (1999b); and Newmann and Sconzert (2000).

[7] Newmann and Sconzert (2000).

[8] For more detail on school reform in Chicago see Shipps, Kahne, and Smylie (1999a); Bryk et al. (1998); Hess (1991, 1993). For a detailed description of the influence of Chicago school reform on the development of the Chicago Annenberg Challenge, see Shipps et al. (1999b).

[9] These learning outcomes are described in detail in Newmann, Bryk, and Lopez (1998).

[10] Bryk et al. (1993); Designs for Change (1993).

[11] See Sebring, Bryk, and Easton (1995), Sebring et al. (1996).

[12] Bryk et al. (forthcoming).

[13] Newmann et al. (1998), Newmann, Bryk, and Nagaoka (2001).

[14] Early requests for grant proposals issued by the Challenge used language and identified directions for improvement that were consistent with the model. Later Challenge communication with schools and external partners have been much more explicit in their reference to it. For example, see *How to Grow Healthy Schools: A Guide to Improving Public Education* (Chicago Annenberg Challenge, 2000).

[15] More detailed information about the Model of Essential Supports can be found in other Consortium documents. See Bryk et al. (forthcoming).

[16] Examples of literature that present similar descriptions of strong school leadership include Blumberg and Greenfield (1980); Bryk et al. (1998); Chubb and Moe (1990); Lightfoot (1983); Lipsitz (1984); Newmann and Wehlage (1995); and Sebring and Bryk (2000).

[17] Examples of literature that provide similar descriptions of strong professional community include Bryk et al. (1998); Darling Hammond (1989); DuFord and Eaker (1998); Lieberman (1995); Little (1999); Louis, Kruse and associates (1995); Newmann and Wehlage (1995); and Rosenholtz (1989).

[18] For more information about parent and community support see Clark (1983); Delpit (1998); Dryfoos (1994); Epstein (1995); Epstein and Dauber (1991); Furstenberg et al. (1999); Lareau (1989); and Tyack (1992).

[19] Examples of literature that support this representation of strong student learning climate include Bryk, Lee, and Holland (1993); Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989); Coleman (1988); Dorsch (1998); King and Mathers (1997); Lee et al. (1999); Marks, Doane, and Secada (1996); McDill, Natriello, and Pallas (1986); Noddings (1998); Raudenbush (1984); Sebring et al. (1996); Shouse (1996); and Sizer (1984, 1992).

[20] In 1999, CPS required eighth-grade students to achieve a minimum score of 7.4 on the ITBS in order to be promoted to high school.

[21] See Newmann (1996); Delpit (1998); Elmore and Burney (1997); Good and Brophy (1997); and Smith, Lee, and Newmann (2001).

[22] Newmann et al. (2001).

[23] See Bryk and Schneider (1996); Sebring et al. (1995); Smylie and Hart (1999).

[24] Easton et al. (2000).

[25] We produced these estimates using HLM analyses that controlled for school demographic characteristics. See Appendix B for additional detail.

[26] Across all Annenberg schools principals corroborated our finding that schools were working more frequently with their communities. On the citywide Consortium surveys, principals reported that community organizations made the work of their Annenberg network easier in 1999 than in 1997. According to the survey, the percentage of principals who agreed that community organizations helped their school development efforts grew from 20 to 44 percent between 1997 and 1999.

[27] This improvement in the intellectual challenge of classroom assignments is documented in Bryk et al. (2000). That report shows a general increase in the intellectual challenge of writing and math assignments made by teachers in third-, sixth-, and eighth-grade classrooms in our field research schools.

[28] We examine 1997 data here because instructional program coherence is the only essential support where the direction of development changes between 1994 and 1997, and 1997 and 1999.

[29] Easton et al. (2000).

[30] Newmann et al. (1998).

[31] Newmann et al. (2001).

[32] Bryk et al. (2000).

[33] Miller et al. (1999). This rate is based on analysis of the 1993 cohort of ninth-grade students first entering CPS high schools. It is somewhat better than the systemwide graduation rate of 41 percent.

[34] Muller (1993).

[35] See for example, Berman and McLaughlin (1977); Thompson (1967); and Wise (1979).

[36] Elmore and McLaughlin (1997); Fullan (2001); Louis and Miles (1990).

[37] In this report we focus on emerging lessons based on broad patterns in our field research data. In the future we need to study schools that are exceptions to these main patterns in greater depth. At this time, there are two schools that stand out as exceptions. We do not fully understand why these schools are exceptions, but suspect the reasons relate to the following issues. Walesa Elementary was relatively strong in most aspects of the essential supports but did not strengthen these supports during our study period. Tutu Elementary showed no signs of development until it received a new principal midway through the 1998-99 school year. Although the new principal immediately strengthened leadership, we saw no other changes occurring at that school during the remainder of the school year.

[38] Heller and Firestone (1995).

[39] Mayrowetz and Weinstein (1999).

[40] Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001). See also Ogawa and Bossert (1995).

[41] Spillane et al. (2001).

[42] Ryan et al. (1997).

[43] See Fullan (2001).

[44] We used hierarchical linear modeling with an outcome Rasch measure indicating principal views on outside resources. Annenberg schools reported a mean of 5.51 out of 10 in 1997 and a 6.13 out of 10 in 1999. This was an effect size difference of 0.31 across the years and was statistically significant at a level of $p = 0.03$. Also see Appendix C.

[45] Other researchers also refute the viability of "quick fixes" and "cookbook solutions." For example, see Fullan (2001) and Maeher and Midgley (1996), 53.

[46] See Newmann and Wehlage (1995); Sarason (1990); and Tyack and Cuban (1995).

[47] Hannaway (1993) and Smylie and Perry (1998).

[48] Demographic variables used for controls were: index of the level of crime around the school neighborhood (developed from police department records on total incidence of crimes by location), the school's average ITBS scores in 1994, average social status of adults in the school neighborhood (developed from 1990 census items on the percentage of employed persons who are managers, executives, etc., and the education levels of adults over 25 years old), average housing tenancy in the school neighborhood (from 1990 census data), average poverty in the school neighborhood (developed from 1990 census items on the percentage of adult males unemployed and the percentage of families below the poverty line), percentage of limited-English proficiency students in the school in 1997, percentage of low-income students in the school in 1997, mobility rate of students in the school in 1997, dummy variables representing the racial composition of the school (predominantly African American, predominantly Latino, racially mixed but not integrated, and mixed minority, with integrated as the excluded group), and a dummy variable representing small school enrollment.

[49] For detail on the development of the productivity index see Bryk, Thum, Easton, and Luppescu (1998).

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This report reflects the interpretation of its authors. Although the Consortium assisted in the development of this research, no formal endorsement by its Steering Committee members, their organizations, or the Consortium should be assumed.

Consortium on Chicago School Research

Mission

The Consortium on Chicago School Research is an independent federation of Chicago area organizations that conducts research on ways to improve Chicago's public schools and assess the progress of school improvement and reform. Formed in 1990, it is a multipartisan organization that includes faculty from area universities, leadership from the Chicago Public Schools, the Chicago Teachers Union, education advocacy groups, the Illinois State Board of Education, and the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, as well as other key civic and professional leaders.

The Consortium does not argue a particular policy position. Rather, it believes that good policy is most likely to result from a genuine competition of ideas informed by the best evidence that can be obtained.

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Improving Chicago's Schools

Sponsored by
the Chicago Annenberg Research Project
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The Chicago Annenberg Research Project is a five-year program of the Consortium on Chicago School Research to document and analyze the activities and accomplishments of the Chicago Annenberg Challenge. The project focuses on four related areas of inquiry.

1. **Outcomes for students.** Change in academic achievement, including basic skills and higher levels of learning. Also change in social attitudes, conduct, and engagement among students in Annenberg schools.

2. **School development.** Improvement in key organizational conditions of Annenberg schools that affect student learning. These conditions include school leadership, parent and community partnerships, student-centered learning climate, professional development and community, and quality instruction, as well as the Challenge's organizational themes of time, size, and isolation.

3. **Networks.** How networks, their external partners, and other change mechanisms promote the development of Annenberg schools.

4. **Larger contexts needed to support school development.** How the Challenge develops as an organization to support networks and school development. How the broader institutional contexts of Chicago affect the development and accomplishments of the Challenge.

The project's research design includes longitudinal surveys and case studies, multiple levels of analysis, and comparison groups. Data are collected from several sources including surveys of teachers, principals, and students; observations of schools and classrooms; classroom tasks and student work products; interviews; documents of Challenge activities; and administrative records from the Chicago Public Schools.

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